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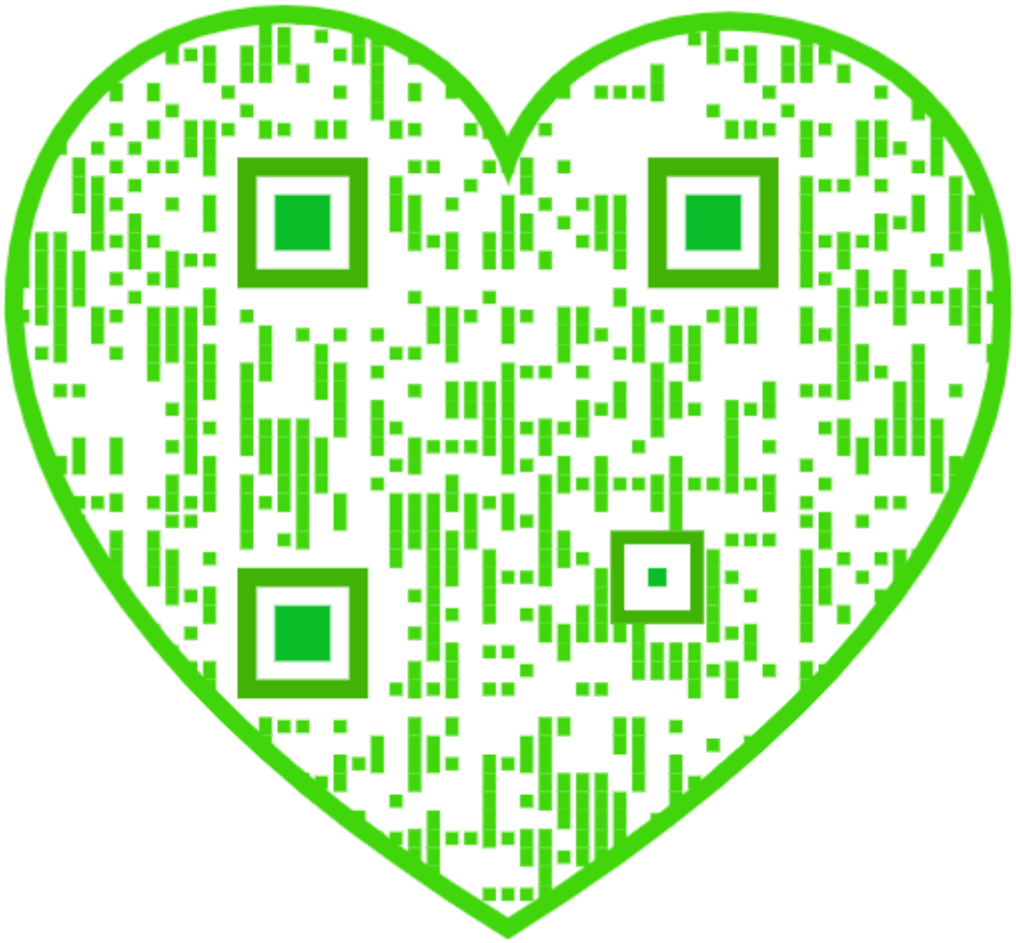
# AMERICAN COLONIAL HISTORY

R. L. ASHLEY

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY



Class

Book

# AMERICAN COLONIAL HISTORY

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# AMERICAN COLONIAL HISTORY

*For Use in Secondary Schools*

BY

ROSCOE LEWIS ASHLEY

AUTHOR OF "THE AMERICAN FEDERAL STATE," "AMERICAN GOVERNMENT," "AMERICAN HISTORY," ETC.

New York

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1911

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# PREFACE

THIS book contains Part I of Ashley's *American History*. Its purpose is to provide the necessary material for the study of American Colonial History in connection with the course in English History, as recommended by the Committee of Five on the Study of History in Secondary Schools.

# SUGGESTIONS

On account of the limited time at the disposal of high school pupils, the marginal references have been selected with care. Most of them will be found in the average public library, and a fair proportion in the ordinary high school library. Many of the groups of marginal references can be used for topics to supplement the lists given at the ends of the chapters.

The following lists of books will probably be found most useful in connection with this text. As duplicates are always more useful for class use than even a large number of titles, a large high school library would probably contain a much larger number of books from the first and second lists than from the third.

## I. A SMALL LIBRARY

One or more copies of each of the following: —

*Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VII.
Coman, *Industrial History of the United States.*
MacDonald, *Select Documents of United States History* (1776–1861).
Burgess, *Middle Period.*
Dodge, *Bird's Eye View of the Civil War.*
Hart (ed.), *American History told by Contemporaries*, Vol. IV.
*American History Leaflets*, Nos. 4, 5, 23, 30.

## II. A MEDIUM-SIZED LIBRARY

Selected from the books given above and the following: —

*Epochs of American History*, 3 volumes.
Channing and Hart, *Guide to American History.*
MacDonald, *Select Charters Illustrative of American History.*
MacDonald, *Select Statutes of United States History.*
The American Nation: —
Bourne, *Spain in America.*
Andrews, *Colonial Self-Government.*

HOWARD, *Preliminaries of the Revolution.*
VAN TYNE, *The American Revolution.*
MCLAUGHLIN, *Confederation and the Constitution.*
TURNER, *Rise of the New West.*
HART, *Abolition and Slavery.*
CHANNING, *History of the United States,* Vol. I.
PARKMAN, *Struggle for a Continent.*
FISKE, *Critical Period of American History.*
ASHLEY, *American Federal State.*
HART, *Actual Government.*
HART (ed.), *American History told by Contemporaries,* 4 volumes.
*American History Leaflets.*
*Old South Leaflets.*
DEWEY, *Financial History of the United States.*
FOSTER, *A Century of American Diplomacy.*
JOHNSTON, *American Political History,* 2 volumes.
BURGESS, *Middle Period.*
BURGESS, *Civil War and the Constitution,* Vol. I.
STANWOOD, *History of the Presidency.*
ANDREWS, *The United States in our Own Time.*
LARNED (ed.), *History for Ready Reference,* Vol. VI.
ELSON, *History of the United States.*

## III. A LARGE LIBRARY

Selected from the books given above and the following: —

WINSOR, *Narrative and Critical History of America,* 8 volumes.
* *The American Nation,* rest of the 27 volumes.
*FISKE, 13 volumes on American history.
*SEMPLE, *American History and its Geographic Conditions.*
BRIGHAM, *Geographic Influences in American History.*
OGG, *Opening of the Mississippi.*
EGGLESTON, *Beginners of a Nation.*
FROTHINGHAM, *Rise of the Republic.*
LODGE, *Short History of the English Colonies.*
DOYLE, *English Colonies,* 5 volumes.
JOHNSTON (WOODBURN) (eds.), *American Eloquence,* 4 volumes.
ROOSEVELT, *Winning of the West,* 4 volumes.
*TAUSSIG, *Tariff History of the United States.*
SCHOULER, *History of the United States* (1783–1865), 6 volumes.
*MCMASTER, *History of the People of the United States* (1783–1860) 7 volumes published.
WHITE, *Money and Banking.*
*RHODES, *History of the United States since the Compromise of 1850,* 7 volumes.

*American Statesmen Series;* especially volumes on Franklin, *Washington, *Hamilton, *Webster, *Clay, *Calhoun, Lincoln, Benton, Chase, Seward, and Blaine.

*American Commonwealth Series;* especially volumes on Virginia, Maryland, Connecticut, Missouri, Indiana, Kentucky, Texas, Louisiana, and Kansas.

LARNED, *History for Ready Reference*, 6 volumes.

*SPARKS, *Expansion of the United States.*

BLAINE, *Twenty Years of Congress.*

COX, *Three Decades of Federal Legislation.*

BURGESS, *Civil War and the Constitution*, Vol. II.

JOHNSON, *War of Secession.*

WOOD-EDMUNDS, *Civil War in the United States.*

*Battles and Leaders of the Civil War*, 4 volumes.

BURGESS, *Reconstruction and the Constitution.*

FOSTER, *American Diplomacy in the Orient.*

JOHNSON, *American Railway Transportation.*

Those starred in this list should be included in list II if possible.

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Relief Map of the United States

# PART I

# THE COLONIAL PERIOD (1492–1763)

## CHAPTER I

### CONDITIONS AFFECTING COLONIZATION IN AMERICA

**1. Introduction.** — Not many years ago the common opinion about history was expressed in the words, "happy is that people who have no history." To persons holding such a view, history was a record of wars and intrigues, of cruelty, misfortune, and destruction. This opinion of history, common enough a generation ago, is held by few to-day, for we are beginning to realize that history is less a narrative of events than a record of progress — that it should not record the horrors of a nation's life but its achievements. It is hardly necessary to state that this must be quite as much a study of the means used to produce certain results, of the conditions which made possible and necessary certain achievements, as a description of the results themselves; for, after all, the purpose of studying history is not to learn facts, but to understand the causes and results of the great movements in the life of a people.

What is history?

This task is one of great interest and importance, but it presents many difficulties. We cannot, in a short time and within a brief text, examine very much of the material to be found on this broad subject. We must therefore decide what phase or phases of history should receive special consideration, and then seek to concentrate our attention on those topics which mark most clearly the path we wish to follow. Since we cannot study all the phases of American development, we shall devote ourselves particularly to the develop-

Choice of topics in American history.

ment of the American nation — a subject that is political rather than social — and seek to discover how the American nation became what it is to-day. Many military events will be examined in the course of this study, for our wars have greatly influenced our national development. Commercial activities and social life will be considered to some extent, because without some knowledge of them we cannot understand certain changes in our country.

Two things to be noted.

In connection with each subject studied we should note two things: (1) what are the facts regarding the topic under consideration? (2) how is this event connected with other events we have studied? The first involves not only an act of memory but discrimination between the details that are more important and those that are insignificant; the second compels us to use the knowledge that we have gained in reasoning out the causes and results of the different movements.

Three conditions affecting American history.

Before taking up in a systematic way the record of American development, we must consider first three things that have influenced our progress greatly, especially during our early years. One of these is the geography of the United States, which has influenced our history from the beginning and is now a factor of the first importance in determining the character of our life and occupations. The second deals with the original inhabitants, the Indians, whose influence during colonial times was very great, and the third with the situation in Europe at the time the continent was discovered.

## Geographical Conditions

Four important geographical influences.

**2. Geography and American Colonization.** — In all ages the geography of different countries has exerted a very great influence on their history. In the development of the United States we can study the influence of physical conditions as, step by step, the territory was explored and opened to settlement. The effect of topography, soil, and climate can be measured, because we have fairly full and exact information of every early attempt to gain a foothold

Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, x–xv.

on this continent. During the colonial period, the geographical characteristics which affected our history most were four in number: (1) The accessibility of the new continent. Its position with reference to Europe, the character of its coast line, the extent of its water systems, and the navigability of its rivers aided exploration and settlement. (2) The possibility of a food supply. As no colony could continue to exist if dependent on Europe or on other colonies for its food, it was necessary that grains and vegetables should be raised easily within the colony. Climate, rainfall, the character of the soil, and many other physiographical conditions affected this problem. (3) Its defensibility. The dangers to which a colony was exposed and the ease with which it might be defended were matters of the first importance. If located in the heart of the country, scattered settlements were out of the question. The neighborhood of unfriendly European colonies was also to be avoided, and especial care was necessary to prevent the destruction of a colony through disease caused by extreme heat or cold or by the fevers all too common in the low marshy coastal belt. (4) Its general resources. Permanency depended on the development of certain industries, which would not only help the colonists to sustain life, but would produce articles which they could exchange for the necessaries that must be procured in Europe. The precious metals of Mexico and South America, the sugar and tobacco of Cuba, and the furs of New France explain the success of Spanish and French colonies. Topography and occupations account to a large extent also for the character of a colony. The compact little hamlets of New England could never have been developed in the broad fertile valleys of the South any more than the system of French trading posts could have been established in the narrow valleys of Massachusetts. After considering some of these physical conditions and the geographical divisions of the United States, we shall note briefly how English and French colonization was affected by them.

Accessibility.

Food supply.

Defensibility.

General resources.

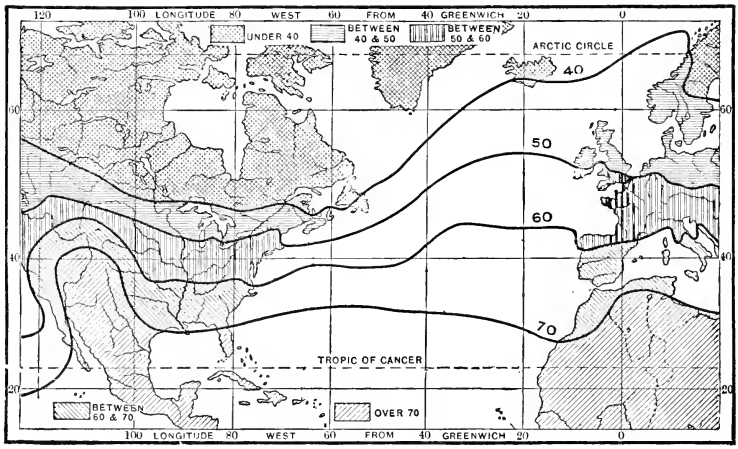
3. **Climate and Rainfall.** — The climate of the United

Temperature of the coast and interior.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, ii, vi.

Farrand, *Basis of Amer. History*, 17–21.

States, while on the whole temperate, presents many variations. Two things that had a very great influence on our early history should be noted carefully. (1) The temperature of the Atlantic slope and of the Mississippi basin is much lower than that of Europe in the same latitude, because the warm waters of the Gulf Stream wash the shores of western Europe. (2) The winters in the northern half of the United States are very severe, especially in the interior which possesses to a marked degree the characteristics of a continental climate. The earliest American colonies were



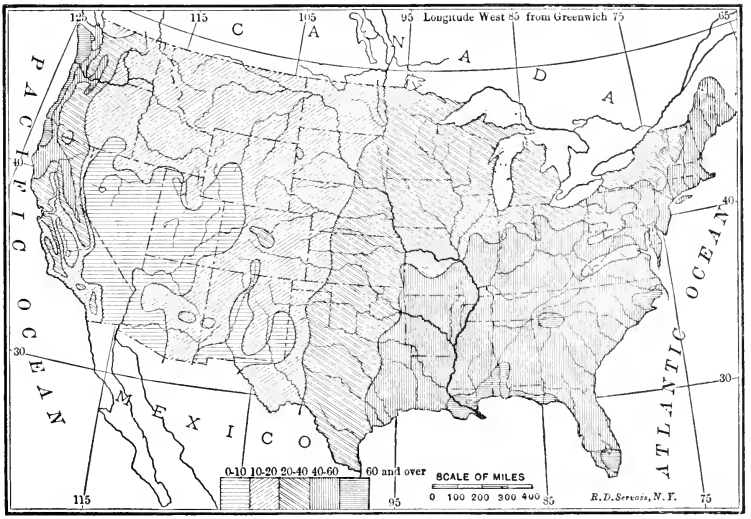

ISOTHERMAL LINES

established below the latitude of Rome and the extreme cold was thus avoided, but most of the English colonists of the seventeenth century settled farther north and found themselves face to face with all the hardships and privations that a long winter would be likely to cause. In several cases the intense suffering led to the complete abandonment of the settlement. This very struggle for existence, however, seems to have benefited those who were courageous enough to attempt or hardy enough to endure the life north of the fortieth parallel.

The rainfall throughout the eastern half of the United States is sufficiently abundant to insure good crops without being so excessive as to prevent cultivation. It is heaviest on the Gulf slope, but almost as great along the Atlantic border. West of the Mississippi River the rainfall is less abundant and beyond the one hundred and fifth meridian is too light for the production of most crops. However, the great semi-arid plains of the West form one of the finest grazing regions in the world.

Variations in rainfall.

Shaler, *United States*, I, 15–20.




AVERAGE RAINFALL

**4. Natural Resources.** — These climatic conditions have made it possible for Europeans to live within the United States. They contributed very largely to the success of the early settlements, because of the ease with which a supply of food could be raised. Without maize or Indian corn many of the early colonies would have been complete failures. Being a native product of this continent, maize was found growing wild to some extent. From the Indians who cultivated it in a crude way, all early settlers secured supplies

Agricultural food supplies.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, xiii–xv.

Shaler, *United States*, I, 25–27.

by purchase or force, and it remained the chief food of the immigrants during the colonial period. This was largely due to the ease with which it was grown in half-cleared forests where wheat could not be raised, and to the abundance of the crop. As it is sensitive to the cold, it cannot be raised in the North, much to the loss of the colonists in that part of the continent. The early settlers depended a great deal on the pumpkins and squashes grown with the maize in the clearings. In the Great Lake basin wild rice was one of the chief foods for a large part of the population.

Non agricultural foods.

Besides the agricultural productions on which the colonists depended, they used as food the immense supplies of fish and game. Colonization would have been very difficult, perhaps impossible, in New England and around the St. Lawrence, but for the fisheries, the cod particularly being a source of considerable wealth because exported in large quantities. Frontiersmen found it possible to sustain life on the flesh of the animals killed.

Commercial value of natural resources.

Far more valuable to the early settlers was the vast trade in peltries which engaged the attention of a large percentage of the population in New France and New Netherland. This fur trade determined the location of almost all of the frontier towns, which were at the beginning little more than trading posts. In the South the greater productivity of the soil and the mildness of the climate made the question of food supply a less serious one, but the growth of tobacco in Virginia especially and the exportation of rice from the coast plantations aided greatly in the development of colonies in that section. The abundance of excellent timber along the coast furnished material for the construction of homes and stimulated industries like ship building. Although the dense forests interfered somewhat with agriculture, they were a valuable aid to the colonists in other ways, lumber being one of the chief exports of the English provinces.

Influence of natural resources in recent history.

From this fragmentary account we can appreciate perhaps the influence of natural conditions on colonial development. We can understand also how the favorable agricultural

conditions in this country, coupled with its unexcelled supply of coal, iron, copper, and other minerals, its numerous rivers and excellent harbors, have made it possible for the United States to develop with amazing rapidity since the colonial period.

Farrand, *Basis of Amer. History*, 15–17. Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, viii–x.

**5. Geographical Divisions of the United States.** — The topography of the United States is very interesting. On the east and the west are two great oceans, the narrower separating us from those European countries from which almost all American settlers came. One half of the southern border is a great arm of the sea, and nearly one third of the northern boundary is a system of lakes penetrating nearly one half of the distance to the Pacific. Two great systems of mountains divide the country into several distinct geographical divisions. One, the Appalachian, running northeast and southwest, parallel with the Atlantic coast line, is low and comparatively narrow, with passes connecting the East with the West along the Mohawk, in Pennsylvania and at Cumberland Gap.[1] The second, the Cordilleran system, averages one thousand miles across and is really a high table land fringed for the most part by high ranges on its eastern and western edges.

General. Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, iii–v. Farrand, *Basis of Amer. History*, 7–14.

East of the Appalachian system is the Atlantic slope, narrow and consequently rather steep at the north, giving that section short, rapid rivers, with narrow valleys, and often with numerous water falls; broader at the south, so that the country is more nearly level, the valleys therefore wider, and the rivers slower and navigable for a longer distance. Along the coast there are numerous bays and harbors, some of which are particularly fine. On the south Atlantic slope and on the eastern Gulf slope the coast is often marshy for a considerable distance inland.

Atlantic slope. Shaler, *United States*, I, 53–58, 61–64, 69–74.

Between the great mountain systems lies the magnificent Mississippi basin, the river and its tributaries comprising

Mississippi basin.

[1] The highest peaks are but little over six thousand feet. There are two ranges separated from Pennsylvania and North Carolina by a broad, fertile valley.

Shaler, *United States*, I, 102–107, 127–130.

nine thousand miles of navigable streams more than three feet in depth, draining an area of about a million and a quarter square miles of the finest land on the globe. With a fertile soil and abundant rainfall, except in the West, a climate that is marked by short, hot summers, and in the North by long severe winters, the Mississippi basin is to-day the greatest agricultural region in the world. In colonial times comparatively little use could be made of these characteristics because it was not easily accessible before the days of steam. Mountain ranges shut it off from the Atlantic coast. Falls and rapids in the St. Lawrence basin practically closed that avenue of approach. Access by way of the lower Mississippi was precluded because of the river current and the swamps on either side which made the banks uninhabitable except in places for a long distance from the Gulf. Since the middle of the eighteenth century, however, the Mississippi valley has been the scene of many of the most important conflicts in our history, and it has furnished the issues for numerous great national contests.

Great Lake basin.

Brigham, *Geographic Influences*, 105–114.
Shaler, *United States*, I, 119–127.

North of the eastern Mississippi basin and the Atlantic slope is the basin of the Great Lakes, covering a comparatively small territory aside from the water area. Since it was closed to the outside world for one half the year, when the St. Lawrence was frozen over, and was inaccessible directly because of the rapids in the St. Lawrence River and Niagara Falls, the upper St. Lawrence basin was practically unoccupied during the colonial period. The lower St. Lawrence basin, which is open to sea-going ships as far as Montreal, was the seat of a thriving colony, supported in large part by the fur trade with the interior.

The Atlantic slope.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, xxiii–xxx.

**6. Influence of Geography on English Colonization.** — All of the English colonies proper were confined to the Atlantic slope, which offered many advantages to the settler. It was the most accessible part of the continent, being almost directly across from Europe[1] and offering shelter to the

[1] On account of the prevailing west winds in the north temperate zone and eastward direction of the north Atlantic currents, however, most of the

pioneers because of its many harbors.' As far inland as the mountains the sloping character of the country, with the numerous short but navigable rivers, gave easy access to a region which was attractive and usually fertile. In the South the Atlantic slope was much broader than in the North. The valleys of Virginia and the Carolinas are broad and fertile. As the climate favored the growing of tobacco, rice, and cotton which can be raised most profitably on large plantations, a scattered agricultural population was inevitable. In New England the stony clay soil of the narrow valleys was not well adapted for agriculture, while the abundance of small but sheltered harbors made it desirable for the people to keep near the coast and give their attention to commerce. The middle section, in this as in most other respects, was a mean between the North and the South and partook of the characteristics of each. The magnificent harbor of New York, at the mouth of the Hudson River and at the eastern extremity of the only low pass from the coast to the West, gave that location advantages over every other, and made it the natural commercial metropolis of the East.

Communication with the interior.

During the colonial period, however, there was little communication between New York and the interior because the Iroquois controlled the Mohawk route and the French occupied that part of the Great Lake basin beyond. Farther south several passes permitted entrance to the Ohio valley, the key to the whole of that basin, the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela, lying but a step beyond the last range of hills. Still farther south the great valley between the parallel ranges of the Appalachian mountains, and the gaps from that valley to the fertile region south of the Ohio River, made emigration to the West possible though not easy.

Farrand, *Basis of Amer. History*, 27–35.

The Appalachian mountains.

The mountains were of special value to the colonies because they could be crossed only with difficulty. They afforded protection from attack from the interior and allowed

early voyagers came by way of the Canaries and the West Indies, the trade winds blowing regularly from the east in that latitude.

Brigham, *Geographic Influences*, 76–89. Semple, *Amer. Hist. and its Geographic Conditions*, 36–51.

the English colonies to thrive in comparative peace, expanding with a natural and healthy growth into the foothills without danger of attack from their European rivals. The strength of the English colonies was to a great extent the result of compactness due partly to their agricultural and commercial pursuits, and in part also to the mountain barrier which confined them to the narrow sea border.

The great interior basins.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, xx–xxiii.

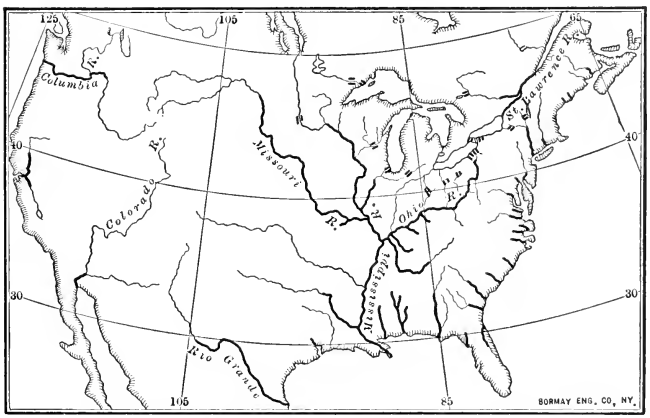
**7. Geographical Advantages of the French Colonies.** — The territory occupied by the French presented marked contrast to that of the English. France was fortunate enough to gain possession of the two great basins — those of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi — which apparently were the gateways to the interior of the continent. Apparently, for it was by no means easy, as we have noticed, to pass from the lower St. Lawrence to the four great lakes beyond Niagara Falls, or to ascend the Mississippi as far as either of its important branches. Had the French been in search of homes, they could not easily have established themselves in the lower St. Lawrence on account of the cold and the sterility of the soil, or have founded extensive colonies in the lower Mississippi valley because of the swampy, malarial condition of the country. Neither could they have penetrated to the interior by either route readily had they been accompanied by their families and encumbered with household necessities.

Hold of the French on the interior.

Farrand, *Basis of Amer. History*, 23–27.

With the French, however, actual colonization was always subordinate to their real work of exploring, trading, and occupying the country. For this task their geographical position was of the highest value. From Montreal, a trader, with comparatively little difficulty, might reach the valley of the Ohio, the basin of the upper Great Lakes, the Mississippi and its many branches, and the entire system of waterways northwest of Lake Superior, because short portages over comparatively level spaces connected the waters of the three great interior basins of the continent, which two centuries ago formed probably the richest fur-bearing region on the globe. Where the trader might go, the soldier could

follow. In time, for both commercial and military reasons, posts were established at the points where important waterways or paths joined, giving the French control of the region to which these ways penetrated. The skill shown in the selection of these points is apparent from a glance at the map. Notice the position of Montreal, Fort Frontenac, Fort Duquesne, Detroit, Fort St. Marie, Fort St. Joseph, Fort




**RIVERS AND PORTAGES OF THE UNITED STATES**

Heavy single lines show depth of 3 feet or more — Double lines show portages

Chartres, and New Orleans, and we cease to wonder why the French maintained a hold, slight to be sure, on the best part of the North American continent.

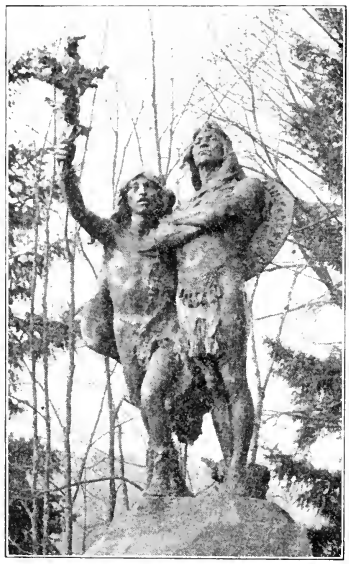
## The North American Indian

**8. The Indian Tribes.** — A second influence during colonial times, less important than physiography, but considerable nevertheless, was that exerted by the native races. There were no early settlers that did not come into contact with the red man, to be helped by him or hindered because of his hostility. These savage hunters were especially numerous along the heavily timbered Atlantic slope, within easy reach of the great supply of fish on the one hand and the animals of the forest on the other. Although they had

Numbers, customs, and organization.

Farrand, *Basis of Amer. History*, 148–175.

not reached a high degree of civilization, each tribe occupied a fairly definite territory which was rather extended because of the need of broad hunting grounds. Within the present limits of the United States, they numbered, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, probably not more than a quarter million.

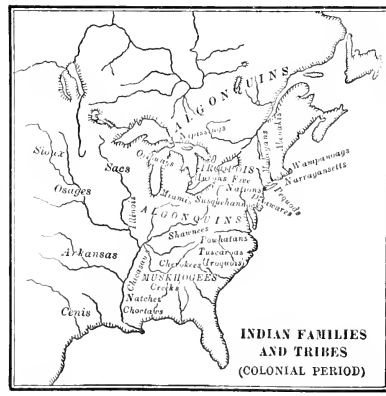


*MacNeil*

INDIANS

Three great families.

Of the families encountered by the French or English only three were particularly numerous or important. (1) Of these the Algonquins occupied much the largest territory, including most of the seacoast and the larger part of the upper basins of the Mississippi and the Great Lakes. The tribes differed greatly from one another, those of the North and West being, as a rule, fiercer and more nomadic than their kinsmen of the southeast, the Delawares of Pennsylvania and the Powhatans of Virginia, for example. (2) The Iroquois family occupied the basins of Lakes Erie and Ontario and the Mohawk valley, as well as a large district in the southern



Appalachian region. It included the "Five Nations" of New York whose political organization, the most perfect of any north of Mexico, enabled them to conquer all their neighbors, either Iroquois or Algonquins, so that they often controlled the territory as far south as the Kenawha and as far west as the Wabash. Of great ability and courage unusual even among Indians, the Iroquois have left an impress on our history that is out of all proportion to their number. (3) From the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from the Tennessee River south to the Gulf of Mexico, dwelt the Muskhogean family, of which the most numerous, ablest, and most civilized tribe was that called Creek.

Social organization.

**9. Life and Character of the Indians.** — It is no part of our purpose to study the life and occupations of the Indian except to appreciate his attitude toward the whites and understand his influence on the colonization of America by Europeans. Living in villages that were often little more than headquarters for hunting expeditions and raids, the Indians were not attached to the soil and removed their wigwams with ease. They found it difficult to fight successfully with the colonists, not alone because bows and arrows were no match for muskets, but because they were seldom united. Each tribe had its own village and lived its own life under chiefs who recognized no higher authority. This separateness prevented concerted movements, except when some great common danger united the tribes for a brief period.

Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 460–464.

Farrand, *Basis of Amer. History*, 215–218, 240–247.

Stern qualities.

The character of the Indians has never been portrayed better than by the master hand of Francis Parkman. He gives us this picture. "Nature has stamped the Indian with a hard and stern physiognomy. Ambition, revenge, envy, jealousy, are his ruling passions, and his cold temperament is little exposed to those effeminate vices which are the bane of milder races. With him revenge is an overpowering instinct; nay, more, it is a point of honor and a duty. His pride sets all language at defiance. He loathes the thought of coercion, and few of his race have ever stooped

to discharge a menial office. A wild love of liberty, an utter intolerance of control, lie at the basis of his character, and fire his whole existence. . . . With him the love of glory kindles into a burning passion, and to allay its cravings, he will dare cold and famine, fire, tempest, torture, and death itself.

Indian trickiness.

"These generous traits are overcast by much that is dark, cold, and sinister, by sleepless distrust and rankling jealousy. Treacherous himself, he is always suspicious of treachery in others. Brave as he is, — and few of mankind are braver, — he will vent his passion by a secret stab rather than an open blow. His warfare is full of ambuscade and stratagem."

The race and civilization.

"Some races of men seem molded in wax, soft and melting, at once plastic and feeble. Some races, like some metals, combine the greatest flexibility with the greatest strength. But the Indian is hewn out of a rock. You can rarely change the form without destruction of the substance. Races of inferior energy have possessed the power of expansion and assimilation to which he is a stranger, and it is this fixed and rigid quality which has proved his ruin. He will not learn the arts of civilization and he and his forest must perish together."

Differences in Indian policy of the Spanish, French, and English.

**10. General Relations of Indians and Whites.** — It was perhaps fortunate for the English that the Indian was incapable of civilization, for it prevented the mixing of the races. The Frenchmen tried intermarrying with the natives, adapting themselves to the standards of the Indians; but the English, a colonizing race, failing to raise the Indian to a level somewhere near their own, treated them always as inferiors. It was as impossible for the Englishman to make a boon companion of the Indian as it was for the Spaniard to respect his rights, so that both were obliged to suffer the loss of his help, which the Frenchman enjoyed. Yet in spite of the difference between the attitude of these three European races toward the red men, it was found that as a rule the Indians responded to the treatment they received. The old saying that an Indian never forgets and never

forgives is full of meaning in our early history. The Spaniard found to his cost that his cruelty was repaid with usury. He dared not venture into the interior unless his errand was purely one of peace and good will toward men, and it was with difficulty that he maintained on the coast a hold whose military character showed how feeble it really was. The English experienced the result of both kindness and folly. Without the friendship of the Indians some settlements must have perished, and without their hatred others would have expanded with much greater rapidity.

General help given to all of the settlements

**11. Help given to the English by the Indians.** — The dependence of the whites on the Indians was especially marked in the early English settlements. Time after time, the settlers would have died of hunger but for the food furnished by the natives. The first successful efforts of the colonists to raise a supply for themselves were but imitations of the crude Indian methods of agriculture. The Indians showed them how to plant maize in the half-cleared forests, how to fish through the ice, and how to trap game. They taught them to navigate the streams in birch-bark canoes. Clothing was made from skins after the Indian fashion. From the beginning the Indians exchanged valuable furs for trinkets, and the great development of the fur trade, which was a chief source of wealth in more than one American possession, was possible because the Indians brought so many pelts to the traders. Exploration of the interior would have been a very much slower process but for the use made of the numerous Indian trails and the help given by the Indian guides who led the way to the easiest portages.

Aid given by the Six Nations.

The Five Nations, or Six Nations as they became in 1715, exerted an exceptional influence on American history. This was due to their location, their character, and their political organization. Occupying, as they did, the Mohawk valley and the territory south of Lake Ontario, they controlled the southern route from the St. Lawrence River to the Great Lake basin and the Ohio valley, and the best route from the Atlantic coast into the interior. They became the

Farrand, *Basis of Amer. History*, 153–162.

persistent enemies of the French, because the French leaders in the St. Lawrence valley found it necessary to ally themselves with the Indians of their section, who were traditional foes of the Five Nations. This made it easy for the Dutch, and later the English, in New York, to gain and retain the friendship of this powerful confederacy. This friendship was exceedingly valuable to the English, because the Iroquois prevented the French from gaining possession of the Mohawk and Ontario valleys and from making inroads on the English settlements during the colonial wars. It also gave the English their first real claim to the land beyond the mountains, for the Iroquois by treaty transferred to the colonists the rights which they enjoyed as conquerors of the territory a long distance to the south and west.

Failure of uprisings against the colonists.

Eggleston, in *Century*, XXVI (1883), 697–704.

12. **Results of Indian Wars.** — Many of the other Indian tribes played an important part in the history of several colonies, although none of them exerted an influence equal to that of the "Six Nations" on the great struggle of Europeans for the possession of the continent. All of the English colonies were undoubtedly more compact than they would have been without the danger of Indian attacks. Yet there was never an important contest between the settlers and the natives that was not won by the colonists. In every case the Indians were pushed back from the coast without great loss to the whites, and, in the case of one colony, Connecticut, the only tribe worthy of consideration was practically exterminated during the first five years of the colony. Later Indian uprisings like that of King Philip (§ 74) were just as disastrous to the natives.

Contests in the West after 1750.

The Indians from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi prevented the rapid settlement of that region. From the time when the French surrendered to the English their claim to the Ohio valley and the basin of the Great Lakes (1763), it was necessary to establish boundary lines between the territory belonging to the Indians and that opened to settlement. In the terrible war known in history as the conspiracy of Pontiac (1763), during which the frontier suffered terri-

bly from Maryland to Lake Huron, the Indians were united against the immigrants. During Washington's administration as president, several armies were defeated until General Anthony Wayne won a decisive victory and left the northwest frontier safe once more. The final contests with the Indian tribes came about the time of the second war with Great Britain, when in 1811 General W. H. Harrison quelled the uprising of all the northern Indians under Tecumseh, and in 1814 General Andrew Jackson destroyed the encampment of the Creeks in the South. With the removal of the Indians to the Indian Territory soon after 1830 and the occupation of Indian lands in the North (§ 271), the red man ceased to influence the history of the eastern United States. The Sioux and Apaches gave considerable trouble in the settlements of the West, but during the nineteenth century Indian troubles were relatively insignificant.

## Europe during the Fifteenth Century

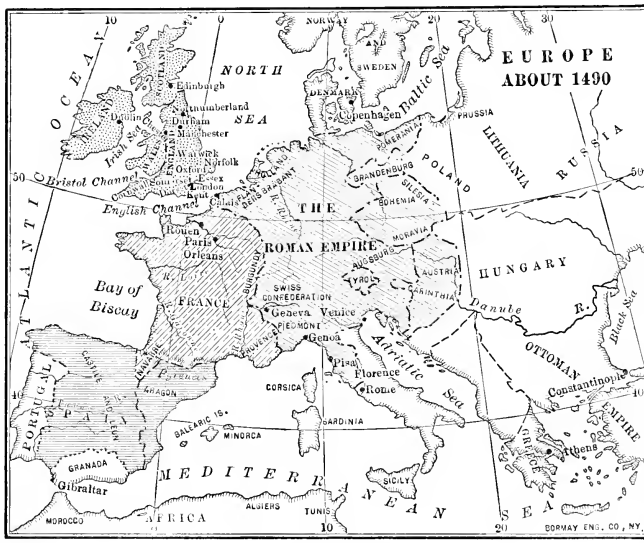
Dependence of America on Europe before 1750.

**13. Connection between the History of Europe and America.** — It is scarcely too much to say that, during the three centuries which followed the discovery of America by Columbus, the history of America was but a phase of European history. If we wish to know why Columbus set out on his great voyage into unknown waters, why there was so much interest in exploring America, or why certain nations took part in colonizing movements, we must seek our answer in the history of the old world. The differences between the colonies of England and France, the final success of England in the struggle for possession of eastern North America, even the causes and results of both our wars with England, can be understood only when we know the situation in Europe during those years. It is not our desire to treat in this book the history of Europe during those formative centuries. Attention will be called at the proper places to the European events which exerted a direct influence on the development of this country. In these sections we shall consider briefly the situation in Europe during the fifteenth century, so that

we may appreciate what Europe was like four or five hundred years ago, and know why America was discovered and settled in the way that it was.

The separate nations (1450–1490).

**14. Political Europe after 1450.** — The Europe of the fifteenth century was essentially a modern Europe in its awakening tastes and desires, but a mediæval Europe in the degree of its progress and development. The intellectual revival which became prominent after 1450, the renewed




EUROPE A.D. 1490

interest in religious matters that followed in its wake, and the attempts to unite the little feudal dukedoms into which Europe was divided before 1400 were epoch-making movements that could not be completed in a few years. In the half century preceding the discovery of America, France had succeeded in unifying her different feudal provinces under comparatively powerful kings, and all of the little kingdoms of the Spanish peninsula, except Portugal, had been united under the joint rulers, Ferdinand and Isabella. But Spain was too much absorbed in subduing the nobility

and driving the Moors from Granada to devote much attention to outside interests, and France was more interested in showy conquest than in solid development. The rest of the European countries were still much as they had been. Little Portugal and the cities of Italy were the most enterprising and successful states at that time. Germany was divided into so many petty states that she frittered away her power and failed to exercise the influence which her geographical position and natural resources might have given her. England was still a second-rate power even among the undeveloped nations of that day. Her agriculture was crude, her manufactures and commerce undeveloped, and her kingdom rent by the feuds of nobles until the strong rule of the Tudors established a monarchy worthy of the name. In Italy the pope still claimed the right to exercise temporal power, and his spiritual power was as yet recognized throughout western Europe, although soon to be denied by all of the northern nations.

Development of trade after the crusades.

**15. Trade with the East before 1475.** — The intellectual sluggishness and commercial inactivity which were characteristic of the middle ages were giving place in the fifteenth century to a renewed interest in learning, in industry, and in international commerce. The spirit of enterprise thus aroused expressed itself in no way more emphatically than by a desire to trade with the East, for the crusades had given the first insight into the wealth that lay beyond Constantinople and Jerusalem. Marco Polo and other travelers had brought back such glowing accounts of China and India that even the mysteries which seemed to pervade that distant portion of the globe were no longer sufficient to frighten away the timid travelers and merchants. Venice and Genoa, which had created a merchant marine by building ships to carry soldiers to the Holy Land, built up a trade of considerable proportions during the following centuries.

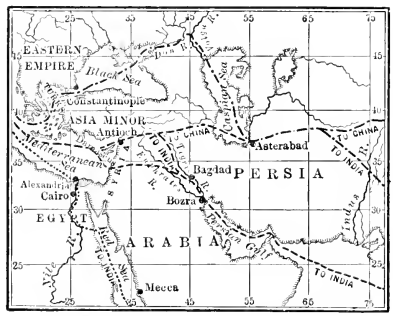
Fiske, *Disc. of America*, I, 274–292.

The three trade routes.

Three routes were used most in carrying on with Asia a large and flourishing business in spices, silks, precious metals, and gems. One of these followed the Black and Caspian

Cheyney, *European Background*, 22–27.

seas, a second crossed Syria to the Euphrates, and the third used the Nile and the Red Sea, connecting them by caravan. With the capture of Constantinople by the Turks (1453) and the invasions of those fierce warriors into Syria and Egypt a little later, these routes were closed or made too dangerous for traveling, and trade disappeared; but neither the merchants who carried these precious articles nor the people of wealth who used them were willing to forego the desirable and lucrative commerce with Asia. Effort was redoubled to find a new route to India. In this work the navigators trained by Genoa and Venice rendered valuable service in the employ of other countries, since the location of Venice and Genoa made it impossible for them to compete with the nations bordering on the Atlantic.




**MAIN ROUTES TO THE EAST**

The route around Africa.

Fiske, *Disc. of America*, I, 316–334.

**16. Search for New Sea Routes to India.** — Two ways seemed possible to the school of navigators of that time: the one around Africa, the other directly west across the Atlantic. Under the rule of the able Prince Henry of Portugal, the coast of Africa and the islands to the west had been explored by the Portuguese, the belief being that the Atlantic and Indian oceans joined south of Africa, and that if the southernmost point of the African continent were rounded, India could be reached with little difficulty. This was finally proved to be true, but only after great delays. The Cape of Good Hope was discovered by Bartholomew Diaz as late as 1487, and India was first reached by Vasco da Gama in 1498.

The route to the West did not attract the same amount of interest or effort because every one dreaded to risk the

dangers of the "sea of darkness." Many educated persons believed that the earth was spherical, but opinions as to its size and the width of the Atlantic were exceedingly varied. Most of the views in fact were borrowed from the ancients, many of whose writings, after centuries of oblivion, were published during the fifteenth century. As early as the sixth century before Christ, the Pythagoreans believed in the sphericity of the earth. In the fourth century before Christ Aristotle had held that the earth was round and expressed the opinion that there was probably only one sea between Spain and India. A century later Eratosthenes computed the circumference of the earth at twenty-five thousand two hundred geographical miles and thought that the distance from Europe west to Asia was so great that there might be one or two continents in this unknown region. The great Roman geographer, Ptolemy, came much nearer the fact, estimating the circumference at twenty thousand four hundred geographical miles. These views of the ancients were known during the middle ages or were republished during the fifteenth century. One of the most remarkable of these new books was a kind of encyclopedia of geographical knowledge which was published in 1409 under the title of *Imago Mundi*, and contained many of the Greek and Roman beliefs. A copy of this book was owned and carefully studied by Christopher Columbus, who accepted the view that the earth was round. But Columbus believed it to be much smaller than it is and thought that the Atlantic Ocean was comparatively narrow.

Ancient and mediæval views of the sphericity of the earth.

Fiske, *Disc. of America*, I, 296–300, 368–381.

**17. Summary.** — During colonial times three chief influences on our history were physiography, the Indians, and conditions in Europe. The moderate temperature and adequate rainfall adapted the Atlantic coast and the Mississippi basin particularly to the support of life. Cod and corn were used chiefly as food. The abundance of furs in the interior, and of silver in Mexico, and the ease with which tobacco was grown in Virginia, influenced greatly the permanent settlement in each of those regions. Because of its

Geography.

accessibility almost all of the early settlements were made on the Atlantic coast, England gaining control of the slope and establishing compact settlements on the harbors or in the narrow valleys of the North and plantations in the broader valleys of the South. The mountains hindered expansion into the interior, but prevented attacks by other nations or the Indians from behind. As the French desired trade, they gained a slight hold on the Mississippi and St. Lawrence valleys by occupying strategic points.

The Indians.

The Indians were friendly to most of the early colonists and helped them by giving them food and teaching them how to live in a wilderness. Their hostility at a later time was due either to the cruelty of the settlers or to the encroachments of the whites on their hunting grounds. Only one family, the Iroquois, resisted the advance of the whites successfully. These warriors kept off the French and usually aided the English because the latter did not care to penetrate so far inland.

Influence of Europe.

Until after the Revolutionary War, American history was little more than a phase of European history. At the time America was discovered, Europe was composed of partly united kingdoms like France or Spain or of decentralized feudal states like Germany. The only wealthy countries were those that had engaged in commerce since the crusades. Venice and Genoa were most prominent, but the closing of the eastern trade routes destroyed most of their trade. The future belonged to the nations bordering on the Atlantic, first to Spain and Portugal, which were already aroused to the possibilities of commerce, and later to the more slowly developing French, English, and Dutch nations.

**TOPIC**

THE IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Larned (ed.), "History for Ready Reference," I, pp. 89–92; Fiske, "Discovery of America," I, pp. 66–77, II, pp. 530–531; Lee (ed.), "History of North America," II, pp. 143–153.

**STUDIES**

1. Western Europe and American exploration. (Semple, "American History and its Geographic Conditions," pp. 1–18.)

2. Influence of the triangular shape of North America on its exploration. (Cf. Fiske, "Discovery of America," II, Chapter XII.)

3. Fur trade and fisheries. (Weeden, "New England," I, pp. 129–135.)

4. The great Appalachian valley. (Semple, "American History and its Geographic Conditions," pp. 54–61.)

5. The Hudson-Mohawk route. (Brigham, "Geographic Influences in American History," pp. 3–26.)

6. French use of portages. (Semple, "American History and its Geographic Conditions," pp. 27–31.)

7. Indian policy of French and English. (Parkman, "Struggle for a Continent," pp. 256–264.)

8. Indian warfare and captives. (Eggleston, *Century*, XXVI (1883), pp. 704–718.)

9. Pontiac's conspiracy. (Parkman, "Struggle for a Continent," pp. 473–513.)

10. Consolidation of France. (Duruy, "Modern Times," pp. 8–26.)

11. Unification of Spain. (Cheyney, "European Background," pp. 81–96.)

12. Commerce of Venice. (Brown, "Venetian Republic" (Temple Primers), pp. 44–65, 75–81.)

13. Henry the Navigator. (Cheyney, "European Background," pp. 62–69.)

### QUESTIONS

1. Make an outline showing the character of the soil, temperature, and rainfall of each of the following geographical divisions: lower St. Lawrence, upper St. Lawrence, north Atlantic slope, south Atlantic slope, Gulf region, central Mississippi basin.

2. Make a (companion) outline for the same divisions showing the accessibility, food supply, defensibility, and resources.

3. Mention some of the conflicts of national importance that have taken place in the Mississippi valley. What are some of the national issues furnished by the West?

4. What was the influence of the Appalachian mountains on the expansion of the English colonies and the struggle for the interior?

5. Locate Niagara, Duquesne, Detroit, Ste. Marie, New Orleans. What waterways or trails did they control? What portages made it easy to pass from the basin of the Great Lakes to that of the Mississippi?

6. Would the task of colonizing America have been easier had there been no native races?

7. Cite at least eight instances before 1775 when events in England influenced American history. Trace the influence. Do the same with three events in America that influenced England.

# CHAPTER II

## THE FIRST CENTURY (1492–1600)

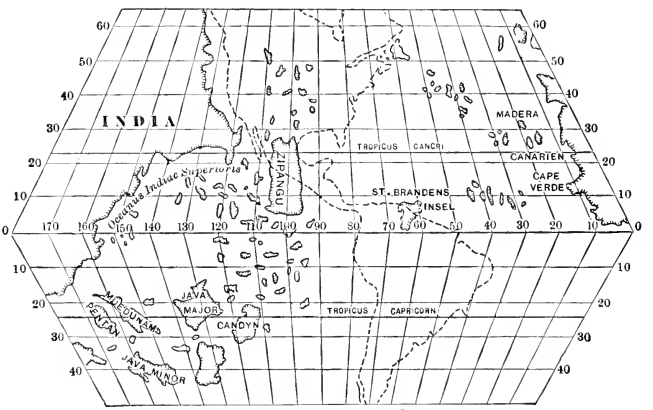
### English Rulers

Henry VII (1485–1509)
Henry VIII (1509–1547)
Edward VI (1547–1553)
Mary (1553–1558)
Elizabeth (1558–1603)

### The Discovery of a New World

Columbus in Portugal and Spain.

**18. Preparation of Columbus.** — Christopher Columbus was born near Genoa, before the middle of the fifteenth century. His parents were poor and he had comparatively few early advantages. Before reaching manhood he began




**TOSCANELLI'S MAP**
(Showing location of the Americas in dotted lines.)

Channing, *United States*, I, 14–20.

his career as a sailor, spending part of his time when ashore studying navigation or geography and making maps. For several years he resided in Lisbon, the chief center of commercial activity in western Europe. While there he wrote to an Italian philosopher, Toscanelli, asking him for information regarding a direct voyage to India. Toscanelli

replied, suggesting that Japan could be reached by sailing directly west, and inclosing a map according to which Japan was less than four thousand miles from Spain. Later Columbus asked the king of Portugal to aid him in making this voyage, but the monarch gave him no encouragement. Subsequently Columbus entered the service of Spain, endeavoring for several years to get governmental aid for his enterprise. But the times were unpropitious, for Ferdinand and Isabella were making a final effort to drive the Moors from the southern part of the peninsula. This was accomplished in 1492, and that same year they made an agreement to furnish the vessels for the expedition, to give Columbus absolute power as viceroy over the territories discovered, and to allow him one tenth of all the wealth obtained through his explorations.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 8–19.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, II, 1–9

COLUMBUS

**19. Columbus's First Voyage.** — On August 3, 1492, he set sail from Palos with three caravels, the largest of which was less than one hundred feet in length. After a delay at the Canary Islands, the little fleet started out into unknown waters. In midocean they encountered a vast mass of weeds now known as the "Sargasso Sea." Going to the north of this, they proceeded westward, constantly finding indications of land. Great numbers of birds were seen, and as most of these proceeded southwest, Columbus was persuaded to change his course. In the early morning, October 12, land was sighted, and at daybreak Columbus landed on one of

Crossing the Atlantic.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 17.

Channing, *United States*, I, 20–23.

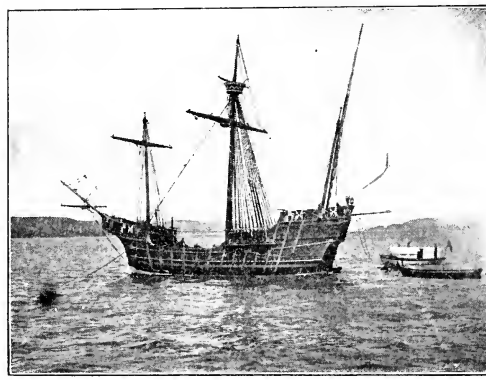
Bourne, *Spain in America*, 20–23.

*Am. History Leaflets*, No. 1.

the easternmost of the Bahama Islands. Had he continued west, he would have been borne still farther north by the Gulf Stream and have reached the coast of the United States.

The return voyage.

After visiting several islands of the Bahamas, Columbus coasted along the shores of Cuba and reached San Domingo, where his largest vessel was wrecked and a garrison left. The return voyage was marked by a severe storm which



Columbian Exposition Model

A CARAVEL

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 23–28.

separated the vessels, but, after many experiences, both reached Palos on the same day, March 15, 1493. The Spanish monarchs received the discoverer with every mark of esteem and he was treated with almost royal honors.

Papal bull and treaty of Tordesillas.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 18.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 29–32.

**20. The Pope's Division of the Earth.** — As soon as Columbus returned to Spain, King Ferdinand sent at once to Rome and requested that Pope Alexander VI confirm his title to the lands discovered in the west. The pontiff accordingly issued a decree in which he proclaimed that Spain was entitled to the lands lying west of the meridian which was one hundred leagues west from any of the islands commonly called the Azores or Cape Verde. The right to heathen lands lying east of this line was confirmed to Portugal, whose claims to territories discovered in Africa had already been recognized by the Holy See. As Portugal was

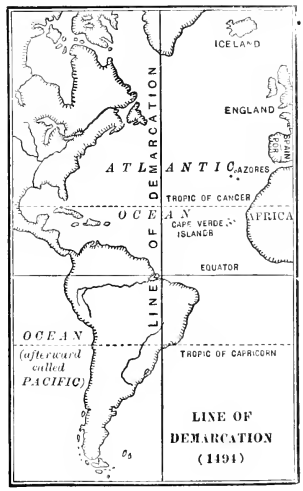
dissatisfied with this division of the globe, negotiations were begun at once with Spain which ended in the treaty of Tordesillas, signed June 7, 1494. The line of demarcation was to be drawn three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands.

Fiske, *Disc. of America*, I, 453–460.

This line did not touch North America, but was not far east of the country discovered by the Cabots in 1497 (§ 22), so that in 1500 the Cortereal brothers explored the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador with the hope that they might be claimed by Portugal. On the other hand, a large part of South America lay east of the line, and when in 1500 a Portuguese, Cabral, on his way to the Cape of Good Hope, accidentally sighted the coast of what is now Brazil, the way was open to the establishment of a Portuguese colony in the new world. On the other side of the world Portugal had an undisputed claim to most of the islands, but Spain gained possession of the Philippines before it was learned that they were located in Portugal's half of the globe. This papal division was ignored of course by many of the other nations.

Influence of the division.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 63–66, 73–75.




**21. Later Voyages of Columbus.** — Columbus did not remain long in Spain after his first voyage, because of the danger that Portugal would send out a fleet to seize the lands which he had discovered. The equipment for the second voyage was a marked contrast to that of the first. A large fleet carried nearly fifteen hundred persons, among them many nobles in search of wealth. A number of the West India islands, including Porto Rico and Jamaica, were visited and a Spanish colony established on Hispaniola (San Domingo).

Second voyage.

Larned (ed.) *Ready Ref.* I, 50–51.

Third voyage.

Columbus returned to Spain in 1496 and did not start on his third voyage until two years later. On this expedition he first saw the mainland of South America, near the mouth of the great Orinoco River. Soon after a special envoy was sent from Spain to investigate the charges of misgovernment which had been brought against Columbus as governor, and he was arrested without delay. On his return to Spain in chains, the monarchs disavowed the action of their representative, but Columbus never regained the authority thus taken from him.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 46–53.

Fiske, *Disc. of America*, I, 488–503.

Fourth voyage.

His fourth and last voyage in 1502 brought him to the coast of Central America, although he still believed he was off the coast of the Indies. His later years were full of bitterness, for he proved to be incompetent for the great task of governing a colony, and being harsh in dealing with natives he made enemies who succeeded in stripping him of his honors. He died in 1506, obscure and neglected, without knowing that he had led the way to a new world, which was separated from Asia by an ocean larger than the Atlantic.

Fiske, *Disc. of America*, I, 503–513.

Voyages, 1497–1498.

22. **The Cabots** were merchants of Bristol, England, at the time news was brought that Columbus had discovered land by sailing west. In 1496 John Cabot obtained from Henry VII a permit to sail westward. The permit was not used until the next year, and it was June 24, 1497, when the Cabots sighted land in the neighborhood of Newfoundland. Six weeks later they were back in England, where the king made a gift of £10 "to hym that founde the newe isle." In 1498 a much larger expedition set out. The coast from Labrador to Cape Cod was explored, and many persons believe that the Cabots continued on their southern course until the capes off North Carolina were reached. No attempt was made to follow up these voyages, John Cabot probably having died and his son Sebastian having entered the service of Spain. But several generations later, when England desired to establish a legal claim to the eastern part of North America, these voyages of discovery were deemed of the first importance.

*Am. History Leaflets*, No. 9.

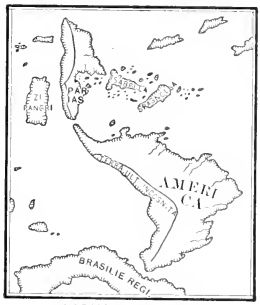
Channing, *United States*, I, 33–37.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 54–61.

*Old South Leaflets*, No. 37.

**23. Vespucius and the Naming of America.** — Americus Vespucius, or Amerigo Vespucci, like Columbus and the Cabots, was an Italian. In 1504 he wrote a letter telling about "Four voyages" that he claimed to have made to the new world while in the employ of Spain. He reported that on the earliest of these (in 1497) he had discovered South America and that on his later voyages he had explored the coast of that region. Many modern investigators consider the claims of Vespucius ridiculous, but it is certain that they were believed by at least some of his contemporaries.

Voyages of Vespucius.




**AMERICA, 1515**
(From Schöner's Globe)

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 84–96.

*Old South Leaflets*, Nos. 34, 90.

Among these was Martin Waldseemüller, a professor of geography at the college of Saint-Die in Lorraine. In 1507 Waldseemüller published a pamphlet entitled *Cosmographie Introductio*, in which he suggested that the land in the southwest, which did not correspond to any islands on the maps existing before 1492, and which for several years had been known as Mondo Novo, should be called "America." This name became quite common on maps of the time before it was learned that this southern region formed a continent connected with lands discovered by the Cabots and others at the North. When this connection was understood, the name America was applied naturally to the whole of the new world.

First use of name America.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 99–103.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, II, 145–152.

**AMERICA, 1541**
(From Mercator's Map)

Discovery of the Pacific, 1513.

**24. The Pacific Ocean.** — Little was known yet about this new world, but in the decade beginning with 1513 geographical knowledge of the uncivilized hemisphere was extended greatly. It was in the year 1513 that Balboa, an adventurer and a rebel, in search of gold, crossed the Isthmus of Panama and first beheld the waters of the Pacific, which he called the "South Sea," because the shore line runs east and west at this point.

Channing, *United States*, I, 47–51.

Magellan, voyage around the globe.

Six years later Fernando Magalhaens or Magellan, a Portuguese nobleman in the employ of Spain, started with five vessels to find a southwest passage through South America to the Indies. In this he succeeded, the strait which he discovered now bearing his name. With but two vessels he proceeded north a long distance, then changed his course to the northwest, and finally to the west, in order not to pass the Molucca or Spice Islands, of which he was in search and whose latitude he knew. After weeks on the quiet ocean, which he named the Pacific, he reached what is probably the Island of Guam, and soon after landed on the Philippines. Here Magellan lost his life, April 27, 1521. The larger vessel was soon after captured by the Portuguese, but the smaller succeeded in reaching Spain after circumnavigating the globe — certainly one of the most marvelous voyages in history, and one which caused remarkable changes in the geographical ideas of the times.

Channing, *United States*, I, 50–54.

### Explorations in the United States (1513–1543)

Ponce de Leon (1513–1521).

**25. Florida (1513–1536).** — For thirty years the Spanish made repeated efforts to explore the southern part of the United States, rumors of gold constantly leading them into the interior. The first to show the way to Florida, a name applied for at least a century to the entire southeastern part of the United States, was Ponce de Leon, who was attracted by the reports of an excellent climate and prospects of wealth. In 1513 he explored both the east and the west coast of the peninsula and in 1521 attempted a settlement which failed because of the hostility of the Indians.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 133–136. Winsor (ed.), *America*, II, 232–236.

In 1526 a much more pretentious settlement was attempted by d'Ayllon. Over five hundred persons, including some slaves, were taken to Chesapeake Bay, but the climate was so unhealthy that they lost their leader and more than one-half of their men within a year, and the enterprise was abandoned.

Ayllon's settlement (1526).

Winsor (ed.), *America*, II, 238–241.

The next to search for wealth in Florida was de Narvaez, who landed near Tampa Bay in 1528. The last survivors of this ill-fated expedition were wrecked some months later on the coast of Texas, where they were held as prisoners for several years. Under the lead of Cabeza de Vaca, who had been employed as a "medicine man," four of them escaped and crossed the plains and mountains to the Spanish settlements on the Gulf of California, bringing with them rumors of large quantities of gems and precious metals to the north of the countries they had traversed and arousing renewed interest in the exploration of the interior.

Narvaez and Cabeza de Vaca.

Channing, *United States*, I, 62–67.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, I, 240–244.

*Old South Leaflets*, II, No. 39.

**26. The Southwest (1539–1543).** — To ascertain the truth of the reports that the "Seven Cities of Cibola" were possessed of great wealth, Fray Marcos was sent "to spy out the land." He failed to reach the cities, but brought back stories more wonderful than any that had yet been told. In a short time, Coronado at the head of three hundred Spaniards, many of them mounted, and nearly a thousand Indians, set out for Cibola (1540). The cities proved to be nothing but the unattractive dwellings of Pueblos, but there was said to be a great deal of gold farther north and east. A force was dispatched to investigate a great cañon to the west, — that of the Colorado, — and Coronado's little army then pushed on across the plateau and plains until Quivera was reached, probably in the present state of Kansas. They found immense herds of bison and trackless wastes, but no gold. In disappointment the Spaniards returned to Mexico.

Coronado's expedition (1540–1542).

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 24.

Channing, *United States*, I, 74–84.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 169–174.

*Amer. Hist. Leaflets*, No. 13.

Among the many explorers who at this time were interested in the country north of the Spanish settlements was Cabrillo. Setting out in 1542 with two vessels, he and his

Coast of California.

Hittell, *California*, I, 73–78.

successor Ferrelo examined the western coast beyond Cape Mendocino with considerable care. Nothing came of this or of the other explorations in the West, and it was a half century before any permanent Spanish missions were established within the United States, and a still longer time before the region proved attractive to less unselfish settlers.

Explorations in the southeast (1539–1543).

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 23.

Channing, *United States*, I, 67–72.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 162–168.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, II, 244–254.

**27. De Soto.** — The last, and in some respects the greatest, of these early Spanish explorers in the United States was Fernando de Soto. Having served under the Pizarros when they conquered the country of the Incas, he was anxious to gain for himself fame and fortune in Florida, as Cortez had done in Mexico and the Pizarros in Peru. With a well-equipped force of nearly six hundred men and many horses, he landed at Tampa Bay during the summer of 1539. The Indians were treated with severity, the chief of each tribe visited being seized and held as hostage until provisions were forthcoming and his country had been crossed. For two years the Spaniards continued their search through the inhospitable country without discovering traces of the wealth they sought and at length crossed the Mississippi. After further wanderings, broken and discouraged, Soto returned to the river to die (May, 1542). Nowhere had he found gold or signs of gold, and everywhere the Indians were fierce and hostile. Glad to escape from this land of dangers, the survivors of Soto's party, after several attempts, succeeded in getting out of the Mississippi and reached the Mexican coast settlements.

Verrazano's voyage (1524).

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 143–145.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, 5–9.

**28. Verrazano and Cartier.** — Although far behind the Spanish in a desire to explore and colonize, the French were not entirely inactive. In 1524 the French sent out Verrazano, an Italian like many of the other navigators of that day, who visited the eastern coast of North America and explored from the capes of North Carolina to Newfoundland, probably entering New York harbor.

Cartier's explorations and settlements (1535–1541).

Ten years later Cartier explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence, returning in 1535 and ascending the river. He penetrated as far as the large island just below the first series of rapids.

To the height on this island he gave the name Mont Real.[1] No attempt was made to found a colony at this time, but in 1540–1541, he and an associate, Roberval, sought to settle on the banks of the St. Lawrence. Roberval failed to aid Cartier until the latter had abandoned his settlement, and the French hold on America after this time was represented by a few fishermen's huts on the Atlantic coast.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 35.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, 47–55.

## The Close of the Sixteenth Century

**29. The Situation in Europe.** — During the early part of the sixteenth century Spain had risen to the position of the first European power. Her king was ruler not only of the Spanish peninsula, but of the Netherlands, the Sicilies, and a large part of America. As he was in addition emperor of Germany, the rule of Charles V was in consequence one of unusual splendor. The immense riches of Mexico and Peru added greatly to this power of Spain, but could not continue to sustain it, for the successor of Charles, Philip II, followed an unwise policy which undermined the sources of national strength. Freedom of thought was crushed by the inquisition, the Netherlands were lost by an unwise religious policy, while the Jews and Moors, the industrial backbone of the nation, were driven from Spain. The decline of Spanish power became evident in the latter half of the sixteenth century, and, after the defeat of the Armada in 1588, was rapid and continuous.

Spain.

Schwill, *Modern Europe*, 59–67.

France was in no position during these years to accomplish much at home or abroad. Torn with the strife between the Catholics and the Huguenots, governed nominally by the worthless sons of Henry II and ruled really by the faction which was temporarily in the ascendant, she followed no fixed policy until the accession of the able Henry IV in 1589.

France.

Robinson, *Western Europe*, 451–458.

England meanwhile under Elizabeth was quietly developing her resources and settling her religious differences. As yet neither an industrial nor a commercial nation, and,

England.

[1] Mount Royal.

Robinson, *Western Europe*, 458–463.

as an international power, inferior to Spain and France, she gave encouragement to the seamen of the southern coast who engaged in trade with the Spanish colonies, and aided merchants who desired to form an East India company to trade with the far East. Elizabeth in fact permitted Sir Francis Drake and others to capture Spanish merchantmen and treasure ships in time of peace, thus developing that irregular navy which in 1588 harassed and in the end destroyed the unwieldy Spanish Armada. With Spain's navy crippled, the Dutch seized upon the greater part of the carrying trade of Europe.

Port Royal (1562).

Channing, *United States*, I, 94–96.

**30. The French in Florida** (1562–1565). — Under the auspices of the great Protestant leader, Gasper de Coligny, two settlements were attempted in the southern part of the United States in the land named Florida and claimed by the Spanish. The first of these was made in 1562 by Jean Ribaut at Port Royal, a little north of the Savannah River, but the next year the colonists constructed a ship, abandoned the colony, and reached Europe after a terrible voyage.

Fort Caroline. Menendez.

Channing, *United States*, I, 96–100.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 36.

Fiske, *Disc. of America*, II, 512–521.

Bourne, *Spain in America*, 176–189.

In 1564 a second settlement was started by Laudonniere on the river of May, now called the St. Johns, where they built a fort named Caroline in honor of their king, Charles IX. Most of the settlers were men of broken fortunes and adventurers. Untrained to labor and desiring only gold, they quarreled with one another and with the Indians, some of them at length turning pirates and betraying to the Spanish the presence of the little colony, Meanwhile the settlers prepared to abandon the colony, but before they were ready to sail, two fleets arrived off the coast of Florida: the first, French, under Ribaut bringing relief; the second, Spanish, under Menendez, threatening destruction. Before Menendez, a man of great vigor and earnestness, heard of the French colony, he had been expecting to secure a grant of Florida and colonize that region. When he learned of the Protestant settlement, he applied to Philip II who helped him fit a great expedition for what they considered a crusade. Finding the French fort and fleet too strong to attack, he disem-

barked his men and constructed a fort which he named St. Augustine (1565). The elements now favored him, for Ribaut's fleet was scattered and his ships wrecked by a great storm. Menendez immediately marched overland through the swamps, attacked Fort Caroline, which was practically unprotected, and put the inhabitants to the sword. Three different parties from Ribaut's fleet who had been wrecked on the coast south of St. Augustine were obliged to throw themselves on Menendez's mercy. Most of them were foully slain. This ended the settlements of the French in the southern part of North America, for King Charles of France was not fond of the Huguenots and was completely under the domination of Philip, but it did not close the warfare between the French and the Spaniards, for two years later de Gourgues destroyed the Spanish forts in Florida and hanged the defenders.

**31. The English in the New World** (1562–1583). — Numerous Englishmen were interested in the new world because of its commercial possibilities. The earliest of these, Sir John Hawkins, engaged in the slave trade with the Spanish West Indies. On the third of these voyages his ships were attacked, treacherously he thought, by Spanish officials. With him on this trip was his cousin, Sir Francis Drake, who from this time devoted his life to the injury of Spain. With the consent of Elizabeth, Drake raided the Spanish main and in 1577 sailed into the Pacific Ocean, where he captured treasure ships on the way from Peru to Panama. Continuing northward until turned back by the cold, he returned to a harbor near San Francisco bay, where he refitted his vessel. The western part of the continent he named New Albion, claiming it for England. Returning to England *via* the East Indies and Africa, he brought back reports which aroused new interest in finding a northwest passage to the East.

Hawkins and Drake.

Channing, *United States*, I, 115–122.

Fiske, *Old Virginia*, I, 15–28.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, Nos. 29, 30.

Frobisher had already (1576) searched for a northwest passage and Davis made three voyages (1585–1587) for the same purpose. The most earnest advocate of settlement in northern America and of search for a way to Cathay was Sir

The northwest passage.

Woodward, *British Empire*, 39–49.

Humphrey Gilbert, who tried to form a colony on Newfoundland in 1583. The attempt was abandoned and on the return voyage Gilbert's vessel foundered.

The first colony (1585).

Channing, *United States*, I, 124–128.

32. **The Ralegh Colonies** (1584–1590). — The next year Sir Walter Ralegh dispatched to America Captains Amadas and Barlow, with instructions to investigate and report the possibilities of colonization. So glowing was their report that Queen Elizabeth named the country Virginia in her own honor. The succeeding spring (1585) seven vessels set sail carrying over one hundred settlers, whose leader was Ralph Lane. They landed at Roanoke Island, off the coast of what is now North Carolina, but before the ships returned to England the commander of the fleet maltreated the natives, thus alienating tribes whose friendship would have been of the greatest value. As the colonists would not work, and could obtain no food from the now hostile Indians, they gladly took advantage of the arrival of Sir Francis Drake and returned to England.

SIR WALTER RALEGH

Fiske, *Old Virginia*, I, 30–33.

The "lost colony" (1587–1590).

Ralegh's devotion to his pet scheme led him to form a company which in 1587 sent out a new expedition carrying women as well as men. Their destination was Chesapeake Bay, but they repaired first to Roanoke, where they decided to remain. Governor White of this "City of Ralegh," as the colony was called, returned to England for help later in the summer, but the ships sent out with supplies were used to prey upon Spanish commerce, with disastrous results. Then came the Armada (1588) which called forth the naval strength of England. Another year was frittered away by the men to whom Ralegh, now impoverished,

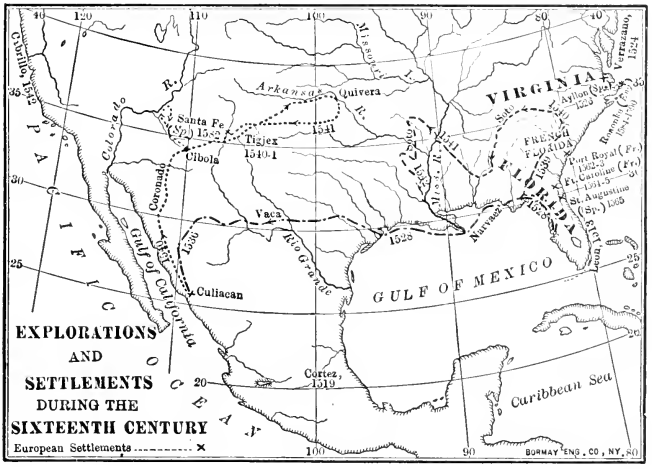
Fiske, *Old Virginia*, I, 35–39.

Channing, *United States*, I, 128–133.

assigned his Virginia patent, and when in 1590 assistance arrived, no trace could be found of the "lost colony." Thus inauspiciously did the English begin the colonization of the new world.

**33. The Results of the First Century.** — In the century following the discovery of America by Columbus the advance in geographical knowledge had been enormous. The shape of the earth had been proved beyond dispute and its size quite accurately ascertained. There was no longer a sea of darkness, but two immense oceans had been crossed; in the case of the Atlantic, repeatedly. A new continent had been brought to light, of which to be sure little was known except the shore lines. Almost every part of the eastern Atlantic

Discovery and exploration.




coast had been explored by Europeans and the western coast nearly as far north as the Oregon River had been examined. The interior of the North American continent had been visited by but two leaders — Coronado and Soto — and the heart of the continent was little better known in 1600 than a half century earlier. Search had been stimulated, however, because of a desire to find a water passage

from the Atlantic to the Pacific which would make it possible to sail from Europe west to Asia without going as far south as the Straits of Magellan. More than any other one cause, this desire led in the following century to the investigation of the waterways in the new world.

Attempted colonization.

South of the present limits of the United States, Portugal had established a colony and Spain had taken possession of several islands and many Indian countries. Within the United States the repeated attempts to form colonies had led to the establishment of but two permanent settlements — the insignificant Spanish fortifications at St. Augustine and the little frontier mission at Santa Fe. Considering the amount of money and effort expended, the results were discouraging indeed. In striking contrast to the limited territory occupied by Europeans at the close of the sixteenth century were the sweeping territorial claims of the rival nations. Spain asserted her right to a territory of continental extent. France claimed the northeastern coast and that part of the interior drained by the St. Lawrence River, and England asserted her right to the eastern part of North America, because of the Cabot discoveries, and to the western coast by virtue of Drake's exploration.

#### TOPICS

Columbus's Efforts to gain Help (1484–1492): Adams, "Columbus," pp. 34–73; Fiske, "Discovery of America," I, pp. 381–385, 395–419.

The Voyages of the Cabots: Winsor (ed.), "America," III, pp. 1–7; Fiske, "Discovery of America," II, pp. 1–16; Lee (ed.), "History of North America," I, pp. 297–309.

Magellan's Voyage around the World: Bourne, "Spain in America," pp. 115–132; Winsor (ed.), "America," II, pp. 591–613; Fiske, "Discovery of America," II, 185–205.

#### STUDIES

1. The character of Columbus (criticisms). (Winsor, "Columbus," pp. 499–512.)

2. Origin of the name "America." (Fiske, "Discovery of America," II, pp. 129–155.)

3. Cortez in Mexico. (Fiske, "Discovery of America," II, pp. 245–293.)

4. The wanderings of Cabeza de Vaca. (Lummis, "Spanish Pioneers," pp. 101–116.)

5. Coronado's explorations. (Johnson, "Pioneer Spaniards," pp. 219–253.)

6. Spain's colonial policy. (Bourne, "Spain in America," pp. 202–219.)

7. Spain's American commercial policy. (Bourne, "Spain in America," pp. 282–298.)

8. Verrazano's voyage. ("Old South Leaflets," No. 17.)

9. Religious wars in France. (Duruy, "History of Modern Times," pp. 218–234.)

10. Destruction of the French colony in Florida (1565). (Parkman, "Struggle for a Continent," pp. 27–54.)

11. The English in the East (after 1580). (Woodward, "Expansion of the British Empire," pp. 69–85.)

12. Reasons for English colonization in America. (Hart (ed.), "Contemporaries," I, Nos. 44–46.)

### QUESTIONS

1. What was the significance of the first voyage of Columbus?

2. How did the discoveries of Vespucius and Magellan affect the geographical ideas of the times?

3. What influences were most powerful in leading the Spanish to colonize? What were the chief characteristics of Spain's colonial policy? Was Spain a successful colonizing nation?

4. Why did Soto fail, while Cortez and Pizarro succeeded? Name several reasons why the Spanish failed to get a real foothold in the United States.

5. How do you account for the comparative inactivity of the French and English during the sixteenth century?

# CHAPTER III

## EARLY ENGLISH COLONIZATION (1600–1660)

### English Rulers

Elizabeth (1558–1603)
James I (1603–1625)
Charles I (1625–1649)
Commonwealth (1649–1660)

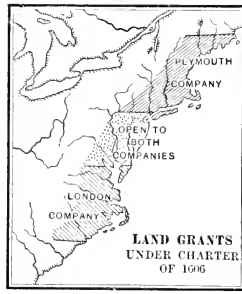
### Virginia (1606–1625)

Virginia company and its sub-companies.

**34. The Charter of 1606.** — During the early years of the seventeenth century several voyages were made to the coast of Virginia by English seamen who brought back glowing reports of the country and its climate. As Ralegh had been imprisoned and his charter annulled by James I, a new company was organized in 1606 for the purpose of making settlements in Virginia. To certain members of this Virginia company, residing in London and usually called the London company, was granted the land lying between parallels 34 and 38. The territory from 41° north to 45° was granted to members living in Plymouth, the right to occupy the middle strip from 38° to 41° being shared by both sub-companies, provided that neither settled within one hundred miles of the other. The Virginia company was permitted to coin money and to defend its possessions, while its colonists were to have all the rights enjoyed by Englishmen.[1]

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 1.

Channing, *United States*, I, 157–163.




[1] There was to be a resident council for the government of each of the two colonies established, and the general direction of the Virginia company's affairs in England was entrusted to a council appointed by the king.

**35. The Settlement at Jamestown.** — In December, 1606, three vessels fitted out by the London company set sail for the new world with more than one hundred colonists. According to the custom of those days, they went by way of the Canaries and the West Indies and did not enter Chesapeake Bay until April, 1607. As a site for the new settlement, they desired a place not too near the coast which might be fortified easily against the Spaniards, who objected to English settlements on land which they claimed. A low peninsula half buried at high tide was selected, the name of Jamestown being given to the settlement, in honor of the king. Most of the settlers were "gentlemen" unused to hard labor, so that the work of constructing homes and planting crops progressed slowly. With summer came an epidemic of fever, and within four months half of the colonists had perished. The councilors who had been sent over to govern the people proved inefficient and quarreled with one another. Famine was averted by securing corn from the Indians and by supplies sent from England, but the communistic system, according to which all labored for the common store, did not encourage industry or thrift in a naturally shiftless set of men.

The first year (1607).

Eggleston, *Beginners of a Nation*, 25-31.

Channing, *United States*, I, 163-170.

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH

Tyler, *England in America*, 41-54.
Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, Nos. 61-63.

The real leader of the party was John Smith. Although less than thirty years of age, Smith was a man of varied experiences and of considerable ability. Since coming to Virginia he had made friends with the Indians, and, in an open boat, had explored the shores of the Chesapeake Bay, making a map of the region which was remarkable for its accuracy. When he was elected president of the council,

Rule of John Smith.

Tyler, *England in America*, 55-60.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 31–40.

he reduced the colony to order, made the rule that those who did not work should not eat, and prevented starvation by securing food from the Indians through his skill and boldness.

Charter of 1609.

Smith's rule came to an end when a new charter was granted which changed the method of government and extended the boundaries of the territory controlled by the London company. The new charter gave Virginia all the land for two hundred miles north and south of Point Comfort "up into the land, throughout from sea to sea, west and northwest." Because of the word "northwest" Virginia afterward claimed the Territory in the interior of the continent between the Ohio River and the Great Lakes (§ 90).

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 2.

Commercial and social results.

**36. The Influence of Tobacco Culture.** — That Virginia survived its early difficulties was due in large part to the character of its first leaders, especially to John Smith and Governor Dale. Its real prosperity, however, begins with the cultivation and exportation of tobacco, for which the soil and climate of the colony were particularly adapted. Small crops of tobacco had been raised by the Indians before the white settlers came, but not until Dale had put an end to the communistic system were plantations started on which the raising of tobacco became a regular industry. King James was strongly opposed to the use of the "filthy weed," but the market for their productions was so good that the planters soon came to devote their energies almost exclusively to tobacco growing. Settlers of a better class were attracted to the colony by the possibility of large profits from a regular occupation, and the banks of the James River and the shores of Chesapeake Bay were soon lined with the homes of men engaged in raising tobacco. Later, inducements were offered to poorer people, who paid for their passage to the new world by several years of service on the plantations. A few negroes, first brought to Jamestown in 1619 in a Dutch man-of-war, were also employed at the more menial tasks. Gradually, as the plantations became larger and the field workers more numerous, the distinction

Coman, *Industrial Hist. of U.S.*, 55–57.

Channing, *United States*, I, 208–226.

between landowners and landless became more marked, the classes of society being almost as widely separated as in England.

Preliminary events.

**37. The First Virginia Assembly (1619).** — In the years immediately preceding 1619, the affairs of the London company in England and of the Virginia colonists in America did not go smoothly. James I tried to dominate the affairs of the company by dictating the laws that should be made and the officers that should be elected.[1] The members of the company objected naturally, for, by the charter of 1612, they had acquired the right to hold meetings in London, transact general business, and govern the colony in America. As the company had not proved a financial success, the majority of the stock in the London company had come into the hands of Puritans who were opposed to arbitrary government in England and in America. Since the governor of Virginia had aroused the wrath of the settlers by his unjust and tyrannical rule, the company, under the lead of Sir Edwin Sandys, decided that representatives of the people should meet with a new governor and his advisers and help them make the laws. Following his instructions, Governor Yeardley asked the freemen in each of eleven plantations, towns, or hundreds to elect two representatives, and on July 30, 1619, twenty-two burgesses met with the governor's councilors in the first legislature in America. Two years later the London company passed an ordinance providing for a regular government in Virginia consisting of a council, chosen by the English stockholders, which should assist the governor, and a general assembly composed of the councilors and of burgesses elected by the freemen. In this way the popular government established in 1619 by the English Puritans was made permanent.

Channing, *United States*, I, 196–199.

Tyler, *England in America*, 76–80.

Meeting of the assembly.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 65.

End of the London company's rule.

**38. Virginia becomes a Royal Province (1624).** — The Puritan element in the London company not only advocated

[1] King James opposed the political discussions at the meetings of the London company and objected to the criticisms of the crown by members of the company.

Cooke, *Virginia*, 129–133.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, Nos. 66, 67.

Tyler, *England in America*, 81–92.

constitutional government for their Virginia colony, but under their wise guidance hundreds of thrifty settlers were pursuaded to try their fortunes in the new world. The colony had a new lease of life, its prosperity far exceeding that of any previous time. Its success aroused the enmity of the Indians and in 1622 a terrible massacre occurred, from which Virginia recovered with surprising rapidity. But this uprising furnished the excuse desired by the king and other enemies of the company in England for the overthrow of the company. This was accomplished in 1624 on flimsy pretexts, and Virginia became a royal province. No change was made, however, in the character of its colonial government, as Charles I, who came to the throne in 1625, desired to win the favor of his American subjects, and was willing to have assemblies that would provide money for the royal treasury.

## New England before 1628

Plymouth company (1607).

Tyler, *England in America*, 39–41.

**39. The Plymouth Company and the Council for New England.** — The settlements in the northern grant made to men of Plymouth in the charter of 1606 had not prospered like those of the South. During that terrible summer of 1607 when the fate of Jamestown was yet doubtful, over one hundred colonists landed at the mouth of the Kennebec, but the extreme cold of the winter and the death of Sir John Popham, the chief justice of England and the ruling member of the Plymouth company, led to the abandonment of the enterprise.

Council for New England (1620).

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 4.

Nothing further was attempted until in 1620 the company was reorganized [1] and obtained from King James a patent to the land lying between parallels 40° and 48° and extending from sea to sea, with a practical monopoly of the fisheries and fur trade. Various grants of land were made by the company to its members, but few settlements were made, even for purposes of trade, and the credit for establishing

[1] It was now called the Council for New England.

*From a Dutch Map*

AMERICA (1621)

the first homes in New England belongs to some Separatists, usually called the Pilgrims, who located at Plymouth.

Puritan policy.

**40. The English Puritans.** — To understand the early history of New England, a knowledge of conditions and events in England under the first two Stuarts is quite as essential as any information regarding the doings of the early settlers, for the colonization of New England was due directly to the contest which took place between the Puritans and the English kings, James I and his son Charles I. The Puritans comprised a large and ever growing class of the English people who believed that the Anglican church, which had been established by the Tudors in England at the time of the Reformation, retained too many of the old forms of the Roman Catholic church. They desired to purify the church of these "papist" forms and to introduce among the people a higher standard of living. But they stood for more than religious reform. They advocated any scheme or plan that would lead to social or political betterment. It would be incorrect to imagine that they formed a sect with well-defined views, for the word "Puritan" three hundred years ago had a meaning but little more definite than that of "reformer" in our own time. In religious matters alone there was a vast difference between the moderate Puritan who favored a simplification of the church service, but who was nevertheless very much attached to the church, and the radical Puritan who had severed his connection with the established church in England and was known as a "Separatist." Between these two extremes was the liberal Puritan, who desired to remain in the church but wished to introduce radical changes in the church service and to leave the control of all local ecclesiastical affairs, including the selection of a pastor, to the members of the congregation.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 103–114.

Three classes of Puritans.

Puritan narrowness.

In spite of their desire for reform, the Puritans were often narrow and the importance that they attached to forms is amazing to a person of the twentieth century. Their desire to raise the low moral standard of their time made them go to the other extreme. Their opposition to amuse-

ments was so rabid that we are tempted to believe the statement that they objected to the cruel sport of bear baiting, less because it gave pain to the bear than because it afforded pleasure to the spectators. And yet, with all the narrowness which they so often showed, it may well be doubted whether any other political force has exerted as great an influence on America as that of the Puritans.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 122–133.

**41. The Puritans and the English Monarchs.** — During the reign of Elizabeth, all of those who did not conform to the practices of the established church, frequently known as non-conformists, were treated with considerable severity. Since the monarch was the head of the church and of the state as well, those who refused to worship as the church prescribed were thought to be guilty of disobedience little less dangerous than treason. For this reason there was no religious toleration in England, and those who were unwilling to conform were punished.

Under Elizabeth.

Tyler, *England in America*, 153–155.

When the throne of England at the death of Elizabeth was left to James VI of Scotland, there was a general feeling among the Puritans that they might obtain some of the religious reforms that they desired, since the established church of Scotland was controlled by the Puritans. James disappointed the reformers very early in his reign, for in a religious conference held at Hampton Court (1604) he showed very clearly that he believed thoroughly in his divine right to rule both church and state. His experience with the Scotch church had not been especially pleasant and he took occasion to oppose the Puritan requests because they would lead to a church system like that of Scotland, "which agreeth as well with a monarchy as God with the devil." In conclusion he said of the Puritans, "I shall make them conform themselves, or I will harry them out of the land." This policy he followed with constantly increasing vigor, for the Puritan element was gaining in strength year by year. One of the earliest results of James's attitude was to drive from England many Separatist congregations which were no longer allowed to hold meetings, open or secret.

James I. and the Puritans.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 159–163.

Channing, *United States* I, 271–284.

Gardiner, *Puritan Revolution.*

In Holland (1608–1618).

**42. The Pilgrim Migrations.** — One of these Separatist churches had been organized in Nottinghamshire by William Brewster and John Robinson. Owing to the persecutions of James I, they fled in 1608 to Holland, the only country in Europe where religious differences were tolerated. Making Leyden their home, with many other refugees, they toiled for years without being able to earn more than a bare living. As the prospect was no brighter for the future, and their children were influenced by the easy-going Dutch ways, often intermarrying with the Dutch as they grew up, some of them came to the conclusion that their condition might be improved by emigrating to America. The Puritans were now in control of the Virginia company and from them these Separatists obtained liberal concessions and a grant of land in the northern part of Virginia. Lacking the money needed for so expensive a journey, they entered into an agreement with certain "merchant adventurers" of London by which all of the earnings of the colonists should remain joint property, and each adventurer who contributed ten pounds should, at the end of seven years, have an equal share with each colonist. After many difficulties, including the abandonment of one of their vessels which proved unseaworthy, the Pilgrims set sail in the *Mayflower* from Plymouth, September 6, 1620. Two months later they came in sight of Cape Cod, and after six weeks of search for a suitable place for a settlement landed December 21 at a harbor which they called New Plymouth.

Tyler, *England in America*, 155–161.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, Nos. 97–99.

*Amer. Hist. Leaflets*, No. 29.

Voyage to America (1620).

Mayflower compact.

**43. Early History of New Plymouth.** — Being far to the north of the territory under the jurisdiction of the Virginia company, the men of the party met in the cabin of the *Mayflower* and drew up a compact organizing themselves into a "civill body politick, for our [their] better ordering & preservation," and promising "all due submission and obedience" to the "just & equall lawes" which they should enact from time to time.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 5.

Dangers (1620–1623).

The first winter, although unusually mild for that section, brought terrible hardships and suffering. One half of the

colony perished, but the rest kept bravely at their work, being aided by a few others who came over from England or Holland. The Indians of the vicinity were friendly, a permanent peace being made with their chief, Massasoit, which lasted until his death forty years later. When the chief of the more distant Narragansetts tried to intimidate them by sending a bundle of arrows tied with a rattlesnake's skin, Governor Bradford returned the skin filled with powder and ball. Soon after the Indian uprising in Virginia (1622), a threatened plot was nipped in the bud by the valiant captain, Miles Standish. By this mixture of diplomacy and force, Plymouth became singularly free from difficulties with the red men.

Tyler, *England in America*, 161–167.

Even the honest, hard-working Pilgrims could not make a success of communism, and in 1624 an acre was assigned to each person as his separate property. Where previously there had been continual danger of famine, now crops were abundant and a surplus remained for sale. Two years later money was borrowed from leading men of the colony, and the interests of the merchant adventurers were purchased for £1800.

End of communism.

Plymouth obtained a land grant from the Council of New England in 1630 and was allowed to govern itself unmolested. So few were its settlers that until 1638 there was an annual meeting of all the people of the colony, but after that year the example of Massachusetts was followed and a representative assembly was held every year. Plymouth grew slowly, and in 1691 was joined to Massachusetts (§ 77).

Government before 1691.

Tyler, *England in America*, 172–182.

### Beginnings of Massachusetts Bay (1628–1636)

**44. The Massachusetts Bay Company.** — North of the colony of New Plymouth, a few pioneers began settlements during the years following 1620, making a precarious living usually in connection with the fisheries. One of these, composed of several earnest and religious men from Dorchester, had prospered for a time, only to be practically abandoned later. But this Dorchester venture had awak-

Organization and charter.

Fiske, *New England*, 92–97.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 199–209.

ened the interest of certain Puritan leaders at home, who believed that America offered the best opportunity for the establishment of churches using the simple form of worship which was their ideal. With this in view they obtained (1628) from the Council for New England a patent to the land lying between boundaries three miles north of the Merrimac River and three miles south of the Charles, and extending from sea to sea. A year later King Charles reaffirmed this land grant in a royal charter which created the corporation known as "the Governor and Company of the Mattachusetts Bay in Newe England," with the right to admit new members and to govern its territory, provided that it did not make laws contrary to those of England. The officers were to consist of a governor, a deputy governor, and eighteen assistants, elected yearly by the members of the corporation. No place was designated for the meetings of these officers or of the "general courts" composed of all stockholders in the company, although all previous charters had such a provision. The omission was due probably to the desire of the incorporators to hold their meetings in either London or Dorchester, but there was nothing in the charter to prohibit the company from establishing its headquarters in America.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No.8.

Quarrels over political and religious questions.

**45. King Charles and the Puritans.** — The desire of the Puritans to have a colony in America was due in large part to friction with the king, Charles I, who had succeeded his father in 1625. Charles was a thorough believer in his divine right to rule England, and was less cautious and more obstinate than his father. The Puritan element now controlled the house of commons and forced the king in the Petition of Right (1628) to grant their *political* demands, but they were unable to obtain any *religious* concessions. Charles desired a high church ritual with greater uniformity throughout the realm. The commons insisted that a simplified service should be used. The victory remained with Charles, for he had begun to make changes and dissolved parliament before the commons could do more than protest.

Robinson, *Western Europe*, 478–484.

Coman and Kendall, *England*, 296–306.

Charles then carried out his plans by enforcing through Archbishop Laud a ritual more elaborate than any used previously in the churches. But Charles's attempt to govern England without parliament (1629–1640) and in opposition to the wishes of a majority of his subjects, his extra-legal

A PURITAN *St. Gaudens*

levies of ship money (1635), and his attempt finally to force the English prayer book on the Scotch church (1637), although apparent evidence of his triumph over the Puritans, were in reality the chief causes of his final overthrow.

**46. Character of the Massachusetts Bay Colony.** — When the most prominent members of the Massachusetts Bay

The great migration (1630–1640).

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, Nos. 105, 106.

Fiske, *New England*, 101–104, 137–146.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 209–215.

Channing, *United States*, I, 325–335.

company left England in 1629, they decided to take the charter with them, intending to transact all their future business where no agent of the king might interrupt. The leading spirit in this movement was the new governor, John Winthrop, a man of exceptional scholarship and very noble character. Winthrop and about one thousand others embarked for their new home during the year 1630, the first of the eleven years of the "great Puritan migration," for during the time that Charles attempted to govern England without parliament, nearly twenty thousand men, women, and children were transported to the shores of New England. They did not come for religious freedom but with the idea of establishing churches in which they might worship in the way which they preferred.

The colony acquires the company's charter.

Channing, *United States*, I, 340–342.

The transfer of the charter, in itself a most remarkable event, was the beginning of political changes even more noteworthy. All church members in the colony were admitted as members of the company. In this way the colony became identified with the company and gained all of the rights that the company had possessed, so that it now had the power, protected by the charter, to govern itself. This change was in fact completed before the king discovered that the charter of the company had been taken from England.

Contest between the officials and the people.

Tyler, *England in America*, 201–204.

Channing, *United States*, I, 342–351.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 107.

**47. Political Problems and Dangers.** — Some of the leaders of the Massachusetts Bay company wished to make all of the laws and do all of the governing. They persuaded the people to keep them in office without holding elections yearly as the charter directed. The people submitted until the officials began to levy a special tax for a stockade at the most exposed settlement. Then they insisted upon annual elections and the right of every member of the colony to attend the annual meeting and help make the laws. As it was found impossible for the men from distant settlements to leave their homes for this annual meeting, they began in 1634 to send representatives who helped the governor's assistants to make the laws. In 1644 a dispute over a stray

pig led to the separation of the assistants and the representatives, thus organizing the first bicameral legislature in America. The democratic faction protested against the powers which the officials still exercised by interpreting as they pleased the laws which were unwritten. The people demanded a bill of rights and a written code. In 1641 the officials yielded and passed a very complete and very liberal code of laws known as the Massachusetts Body of Liberties.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 17.

The Massachusetts Bay company treated its neighbors so arbitrarily that some of them complained to the king. King Charles realized that the colony was governing itself in opposition to his wishes, so that steps were taken to revoke the charter. Preparations were made to defend the colony against attack, but the king was too busy carrying out his policy at home to give the matter his attention.

Attempt to revoke the charter.

Tyler, *England in America*, 204–209.

**48. Religious Difficulties.** — Quite as serious as the threatened attacks made by England were the dangers arising in Massachusetts from religious differences. Massachusetts was a distinctively Puritan commonwealth. The church was not only closely connected with the affairs of state, it was the foundation on which the political and social organization rested. Partly for this reason, partly because the Puritans were by nature intense, sincere, but narrow, and partly because every nation of that time except the Dutch loathed the idea of religious toleration, the government of Massachusetts exercised a very strict supervision of church affairs. Although themselves non-conformists with the established church in England, the Puritan emigrants followed toward the irregulars the policy of James I toward themselves. Those were banished who insisted on worshiping according to the rites of the Anglican church or in other non-Puritan ways.

Religious policy of the colony.

Tyler, *England in America*, 210–212.

The most famous of these early dissenters was Roger Williams, an able, large-hearted but eccentric clergyman. He wrote a pamphlet claiming that the king had no right to issue land patents, for all the land belonged to the Indians. Williams' crowning offence was the assertion that no magis-

Roger Williams.

Fiske, *New England*, 114–116.

Tyler, *England in America*, 212–218.

Channing, *United States*, I, 362–368.

trate should exercise any control in religious matters, such as enforcing Sunday laws or requiring an unconverted person to take an oath, which he considered a religious act, but that affairs of state should be separated from those of the church.[1] He was tried (1635) and ordered to leave for England, but was permitted to make his way south, where he founded Providence (1636).

Anne Hutchinson.

Fiske, *New England*, 116–119.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 329–339.

Williams had exercised great influence, but had no large personal following, as was the case with Mrs. Anne Hutchinson whose teachings in 1636 threatened to disrupt Massachusetts. The entire population of Boston was divided into two hostile parties favorable or unfavorable to Mrs. Hutchinson. The opponents of Mrs. Hutchinson finally triumphed and that lady with her followers was banished (1637). Some went north to New Hampshire, but the larger number settled on Rhode Island in Narragansett Bay.

## Expansion in New England (1635–1645)

Religious policy.

**49. Providence Plantations and Rhode Island.** — Settled by persons who had been driven from Massachusetts because of their religious views, Providence and the Rhode Island towns were drawn together by bonds of sympathy, but remained politically separate until in 1644 Roger Williams obtained from a parliamentary commission a semi-charter by which the towns around Narragansett Bay were united and authorized to govern themselves. The policy of Providence from the beginning and of the united towns after 1644 was one of perfect religious liberty. Liberal Puritans were welcomed, but freedom of thought was per-

Channing, *United States*, I, 393–398.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 115.

Roger Williams

[1] When supplying the pulpit at Salem, his extreme views gave offense. He was held responsible when one of his supporters, John Endicott, cut out from the British flag one arm of the cross which

mitted to Catholics, Jews, Quakers, and atheists as well. Williams insisted that a man should be protected by the government without regard to his religious views. Through his influence Rhode Island became the first community in the modern world where there was perfect religious liberty. Yet the earliest results of this policy were somewhat disastrous. Not only those with real depth of religious feeling made Rhode Island their home, but many whose views on all subjects were unusual.

The colony grew but slowly, making up in the eccentricity of its people what it lacked in numbers. As the first semi-charter had been issued irregularly and did not define the territorial limits of the colony, Charles II was persuaded in 1663 to grant a charter which gave the people complete powers of self-government, subject to the one limitation that the laws conform as near as might be to the laws of England. Perfect religious freedom was permitted, so that no change was made in the policy of the colony.

Charter of 1663.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 27.

50. **The Connecticut Valley.** — We have already noticed (§ 47) the antagonism existing in Massachusetts between those who favored an aristocratic government and those whose ideal was democratic. Although certain concessions were made to the liberals, several of the towns were still dissatisfied, as they desired to abolish the religious qualifications for voting. Another cause of discontent existed in the sterility of the soil, which they had found unsuitable for agriculture. Learning of the fertile Connecticut valley in the west, several hundred people set out in 1636. The Dutch had already built (1633) within the present limits of Hartford a fort which they did not abandon for several years. The mouth of the river was seized by the English, who erected a fort, from which the Dutch made a half-hearted attempt to drive them. Their real foes were not the Dutch but the Pequod Indians, who ruled the territory

Settlement, Dutch and Indians.

Channing *United States*, I, 398–404.

Fiske, *New England*, 123–133.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 316–324.

Endicott declared was a symbol of popery. This act the magistrates felt might be construed in England as an insult, and they forced from Endicott an apology.

from the Hudson to Narragansett Bay with severity. Difficulties arose almost at the start, and were increased by savage actions on both sides. In 1637 the people resolved to put an end to these outrages. One of the Pequod camps west of Narragansett Bay was attacked by less than a hundred men under Mason and Underhill. The attack was a complete surprise, the wigwams were set on fire, and several hundred Indians slain. The remaining Pequods were relentlessly hunted out of the country, and for many years there was peace and prosperity.

Constitution of 1639.

Channing, *United States*, I, 404–407.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 14.

Johnston, *Connecticut*, 59–64, 75–79.

As the people of Connecticut were outside the jurisdiction of Massachusetts and unwilling to have that colony extend its authority over them, they met and drew up a set of fundamental laws for their government (1639). The constitution which was adopted in 1639 established a government similar to that of Massachusetts, with a governor, magistrates, and deputies, who looked after common interests. Unlike Massachusetts, Connecticut did not restrict the privilege of voting to those who were church members, and she left with the towns a much more complete degree of self-government than had been enjoyed in the parent colony. This set of laws, remarkable for its democratic character, is still more remarkable because it is the first written constitution compiled by a people for their own government.

Connecticut charter (1662).

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 24.

Johnston, *Connecticut*, 167–173.

This very liberal political system was recognized and continued in the charter which Connecticut obtained from Charles II in 1662. The new colony, however, included not only the Connecticut valley settlements, but New Haven as well, and extended from the Pawtucket River to the Pacific. Under this charter, slightly modified when Connecticut became a state in 1776, the people lived until 1818.

Theocratic character.

51. **New Haven.** — Strangely enough the later colony and state of Connecticut was composed of two quite different elements: the Connecticut valley settlements, the most liberal, and the New Haven settlements, the most conservative, of those made by the New England Puritans. The

founders of New Haven desired to establish a town ruled according to Scripture, which to them meant the Mosaic code. Other towns were founded by their friends, and in 1643 these were united in much the same way as those of Connecticut under the constitution of 1639. In New Haven only church members might vote, and the general court enacted rather searching laws regulating religious and other matters. These were caricatured soon after the Revolutionary War by a loyalist, Peters, whose book on the "Blue Laws of Connecticut" was supposed for many years to be historically correct.

Fiske, *New England*, 134–137.

Tyler, *England in America*, 260–264.

Channing, *United States*, I, 407–411.

52. **Northern New England.** — A number of attempts had been made to colonize the coast north of Massachusetts. Several grants of land were issued by the Council for New England, notably that to Mason and Gorges. In 1629 these men divided their territory, Mason taking that between the Merrimac and the Piscataqua, to which he now gave the name New Hampshire, and Gorges that from the Piscataqua to the Kennebec, a district known as Maine. Large sums were spent by both, but their settlements were little more than fishing hamlets. At the beginning of the Civil War in England, Massachusetts annexed the New Hampshire towns on the ground that her charter of 1629 gave her all territory east as well as west from a point three miles north of the source of the Merrimac River, but the towns were allowed to govern themselves and to send representatives to the general court of Massachusetts until in 1679 New Hampshire became a royal province. During the Commonwealth Massachusetts extended her jurisdiction over most of the towns in Maine also, and although obliged by a commission from England (1665) to relinquish her control temporarily, she reasserted her authority until Maine was purchased from the Gorges heirs by Massachusetts (1678). The territory east of the Kennebec River was granted to several court favorites, but was practically unoccupied because of the opposition of the French.

Settlement. Relations with Massachusetts.

Tyler, *England in America*, 266–276, 279–281.

53. **The New England Confederation (1643).** — Between

Origin.

several of these New England colonies there was a pronounced unity of feeling. Though representing different types of Puritan sentiment, the ideals in Massachusetts Bay, New Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven were much the same. Some of these colonies had acted together in more than one undertaking, but no formal union had been considered wise, perhaps for the reason that it would have made supervision by the royal government so much easier. In 1643, the Civil War in England removed this obstacle and these four little Puritan communities united to form the New England Confederation, chiefly for the purpose of better defense against the Dutch, the French, and the Indians. Maine, a settlement alien in its origin and customs, was not admitted, nor was heretical Rhode Island, which wished to join the league, its lack of stable government being assigned as the excuse for refusal.

Fiske, *New England*, 155–158.

Government.

The Confederation carefully avoided interference with the local government of each of its members. Two commissioners were selected by each colony for the transaction of league matters. Any six of these had power to determine questions of peace or war, deciding how many men each colony was able to contribute for purposes of defense. Intercolonial disputes were to be settled by the commissioners. A sort of intercolonial citizenship was established and servants or criminals escaping from one colony to another

Fiske, *New England*, 158–161.

Channing, *United States*, I, 415–420.

were to be surrendered. The authority of the commissioners was more apparent than real, but the Confederation was of great value in dealing with both the Dutch and the Indians. The injustice done to Massachusetts, which was larger than the other three together, and the desire of that colony to manage the affairs of the Confederation, caused its decline, but it remained in existence until 1684.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 19.

## Maryland

**54. The Charter of Maryland (1632).** — While the Puritan emigration to New England was taking place, a colony of a new type was being founded in the region north of Virginia. The land was granted and the power to govern the colony assigned to a *proprietor*, who controlled the affairs of the colony in accordance with a charter given to him by the king. This proprietary form of government, although modified in many ways, was the one used after this time in the establishment of new English colonies in America.

A proprietary colony.

The founding of Maryland was due to the personal ambition of George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, an enterprising Catholic nobleman who had long enjoyed royal favor. He was anxious to establish in the new world a place of refuge for Catholics and to build up for his family a semi-feudal estate. Before his conversion to the faith of Rome, he had started a settlement on Newfoundland, which was soon abandoned. He next tried Virginia, but the governors of the colony would have none of him. He then obtained from the king a charter which gave him title to the land from the Potomac to the fortieth parallel and from Delaware Bay to the meridian passing through the head waters of the Potomac. Over this domain he was to exercise almost regal powers, sending to the king two arrows yearly as a recognition of royal suzerainty. He was free from taxation by the authorities at home, which were not allowed to interfere in other ways with his government. With the consent of the freemen, he might make the laws, which should not be contrary to those of England.

Calvert and his charter.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 12.

Fiske, *Old Virginia*, I, 255-256, 261-274.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 221-236.

Contest over the right to propose laws.

Channing, *United States*, I, 265–267.

Browne, *Maryland*, 35–37, 41–47.

**55. The Proprietor and the Freeman.** — Interest in the early history of Maryland centers around two things, the religious conditions and the development of democratic institutions. George Calvert died before the charter was granted and his work was undertaken by his eldest son, Cecil, who remained in England and exercised his functions as proprietor through a resident governor. Being at such a distance, he was unable to meet with the freemen for the purpose of making laws, and the earliest laws which he proposed for the colony were rejected by the first assembly of freemen (1635), who claimed that they had the right to propose laws. This claim was not accepted by the proprietor, who in turn rejected the laws suggested by the freemen. Matters remained in this chaotic state for four years, each side refusing to yield, but in 1639 Baltimore gave his consent to a very full and cumbersome code of laws enacted by the assembly, at the same time instructing his governor to claim the power of veto only. Calvert could well afford this concession, because his authority over the colony was very great, and the legislature was composed of councilors selected by himself as well as the freemen who represented the people or were summoned to the assembly by the proprietor. The later history of the colony is largely concerned with the attempt on the part of the freemen and of the proprietor to extend their legislative influence at the expense of the other.

Religious classes. Law of 1649.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 21.

Eggleston, *Beginners*, 242, 250–257.

**56. Religious Toleration.** — From the first the majority of the settlers in Maryland were Puritans, the proportion increasing with great rapidity during the closing years of the Civil War in England, especially when Virginia in 1648 drove many Puritans from its borders. As the proprietor could not establish Catholicism as a state religion, and would not permit an established church of any other faith, there had been little interference on account of religious beliefs during the early history of Maryland. Foreseeing that the Catholic majority in the legislature could not be maintained on account of the Puritan immigration, Baltimore proposed

to the freemen a law giving religious toleration, and at the same time sent over a Protestant governor. The legislature rejected Baltimore's law because it denied to the proprietary the right of initiation, but the next year (1649) passed a somewhat similar law. This famous "Toleration Act" provided the death penalty for those who blasphemed or denied any person of the Trinity, but declared "that noe person or persons . . . professing to beleive in Jesus Christ, shall from henceforth bee any waies troubled, Molested or discountenanced for or in respect of his or her religion."

Extent and character of English settlements (1660).

**57. Summary.** — After a half century of successful colonization we find the English in possession of the Atlantic coast from the Kennebec nearly to the Hudson, and from the northern part of Chesapeake Bay to Cape Fear River. The intervening territory was occupied by the Dutch, who had lately conquered the tiny Swedish settlement on the Delaware. To the south, though separated by an extensive wilderness, were the Spanish, while but little closer neighbors on the north were the French. In 1660 the English settlers lived in eight distinct colonies, two of which, Massachusetts and Virginia, included more than one half of the total population. The emigration to the American provinces of England had been almost exclusively from the mother country, most of the settlers coming between the years 1619 and 1640, although a large number of cavaliers sought Virginia when the fortunes of Charles I declined. As the majority of these settlers were hard-working, courageous men and women whom the dangers of the forest could not daunt nor the hardships of the frontier discourage, the future of the colonies was assured. With increasing prosperity and continued expansion, the Dutch settlements would of necessity have become less endurable, and the first opportunity was therefore embraced to conquer them.

TOPICS

1. VIRGINIA UNDER THE COMMONWEALTH: Fiske, "Old Virginia," II, pp. 1–18: Doyle, "English Colonies," I, pp. 212–229; Bancroft, "United States."

2. THE PURITANS: Ellis, in Winsor, "America," III, pp. 219–244; Palfrey, "New England," I, pp. 101–132; Osgood, in *Political Science Quarterly*, VI (1891), pp. 1–28, 201–231; Borgeaud, "Democracy in America."

3. PILGRIM MIGRATIONS: Fiske, "New England," pp. 71–82; Eggleston, "Beginners of a Nation," pp. 165–177; Channing, "United States," I, pp. 293–307.

**STUDIES**

1. Agricultural difficulties and problems in early Virginia. (Bruce, "Economic History of Virginia," I, pp. 189–226.)

2. Smith in Virginia. ("American History Leaflets," No. 27.)

3. Virginia under Charles I. (Cooke, "Virginia," pp. 41–157.)

4. First weeks at Plymouth. (Bradford, "Plymouth Plantation.")

5. Early emigrants. (Hart (ed.), "Contemporaries," I, Nos. 55–58.)

6. Winthrop's account of Massachusetts. ("American History Leaflets," No. 31.)

7. Earliest New England code of laws. ("American History Leaflets," No. 25.)

8. Pequod War. (Doyle, "English Colonies," I, pp. 160–178.)

9. Roger Williams and his work. (Eggleston, "Beginners of a Nation," pp. 266–306.)

10. General character of the English colonies. (Mace, "Method in History," pp. 86–104.)

11. Charter land grants. ("American History Leaflets," No. 14.)

**QUESTIONS**

1. What was the significance of the settlement at Jamestown (1607)? of that at Plymouth (1620)? of that at Salem (1628)?

2. Compare the Virginia charters of 1606, 1609, and 1612 as to territory and government.

3. What influence did tobacco have upon (*a*) the growth of Virginia, (*b*) the social classes, (*c*) the establishment of the county systems of government, (*d*) the relations of Virginia to England (§ 36)?

4. Did the Puritans believe in religious toleration? How did the Puritan spirit show itself in the dealings of Massachusetts with Roger Williams and with England? Was their course justified?

5. In the contest between the aristocrats and the liberals in Massachusetts between 1630 and 1641, which gained the greater victories in determining the character (*a*) of the government, (*b*) of the suffrage, (*c*) of the code of laws?

6. Define the term "charter." Give the distinction between a charter and a constitution. In what respects was the constitution of Connecticut different from the Massachusetts charter of 1629?

# CHAPTER IV

## LATER ENGLISH COLONIZATION (1660–1700)

### English Rulers

Charles II (1660–1685)
James II (1685–1688)
William III (1689–1702)
and Mary (1689–1694)

**58. Commercial Situation of England about 1660.** — The year 1660, during which the Stuarts were restored to their position as kings of England, marks the beginning of a new epoch from the standpoint of the colonies. This was due to a large extent to the interest taken by the able advisers of Charles II, Clarendon and Shaftesbury, in the expansion of the British domains, and the desire of those statesmen to bring the existing English colonies into closer and more satisfactory relations with the mother country. It was due in part also to the anxiety of England to compete with Holland, which had become the first commercial nation of Europe.[1] Cromwell had sought to injure Dutch commercial supremacy by securing a law (1651) which compelled all English merchants to import and export goods in English ships only. This had led to a war with Holland in which the advantage remained with the English.

English colonial and commercial policy.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't.* 5–13.

This policy of British trade in British ships only was reaffirmed by the new Stuart government after the Restoration by the passage of the very important navigation act of 1660. Not only were England and the English possessions to allow only English or colonial vessels entrance to their ports, but certain articles produced in the colonies, including sugar

Early navigation acts.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't.*, 13–21.

[1] The Dutch had not only gained extensive possessions in America, with the control of most of the East India trade, but in 1650 they controlled nine tenths of the carrying trade of England and practically a monopoly of that of continental nations.

and tobacco, and known as "enumerated" goods, were to be shipped to England only. A few years later the colonies were required to purchase all goods from England direct, thus giving the English merchants a monopoly in selling to them. The undoubted purpose of these acts of trade was to destroy the commerce of the Dutch as far as possible, but they were made on the theory then in common use that colonies should aid the mother country by furnishing a market for her surplus products and by helping the home country to build up her industries. The ministers of Charles II probably desired to treat the colonies fairly, for colonial vessels were considered English ships and the colonies often obtained special commercial privileges. For example, Virginia tobacco had a monopoly of the English market, as tobacco growing was prohibited in England and the importation of tobacco from foreign countries was forbidden.

Purpose and results of the Navigation Acts.

Reorganization of colonies.

**59. England and the Colonies (1660–1685).** — During the quarter century following the Restoration, considerable progress was made in improving the colonial system of England. In 1660 there were only three regularly organized English colonies on the Atlantic coast. One of these, Virginia, was under the direct control of the crown; a second, Maryland, was governed by a proprietor whose relations to England were defined in a charter; the third, Massachusetts, was a self-governing charter colony which had in more than one way refused to acknowledge the supremacy of the English government. There were in addition settlements in Maine, New Plymouth, on Rhode Island, and at Providence, in Connecticut, and on the shores of Long Island Sound.[1] Soon after the Restoration, charters were granted (1662) to Connecticut, which now included New Haven, and (1663) to Rhode Island including Providence. Attempts were made also to bring Massachusetts into submission, ending in the revocation of her charter of 1629 in the year 1684.[2]

[1] New Hampshire was included in Massachusetts from 1641 to 1679.

[2] See §§ 73, 75.

Interest was shown in colonial expansion when Clarendon, Shaftesbury, and some associates prepared to settle the region south of Virginia (1663). In 1664 jealousy of the Dutch and desire to join the colonies of the North with those of the South led to the conquest of New Netherland. Six years later the enterprising Hudson Bay company was organized, and soon after 1680 the only unoccupied section of the coast north of the Savannah River was granted to William Penn. All of these changes were favorable to the increased authority of the home government, for these new colonies were directly controlled by members of the Stuart family or by court favorites.

Founding of new colonies.

## New York (1609–1685)

**60. The Founding of New Netherland.** — The Dutch claim to the country between New England and Maryland was based on the explorations of Henry Hudson, followed by the subsequent occupation of the region by Dutch traders and by settlers sent out from Holland. Hudson was an Englishman in the employ of the Dutch East India company. While in search of a passage to the Pacific (1609) he sailed up the river which now bears his name until fresh water showed that it was not a channel connecting two oceans. He won the friendship of the Indians and within a few years a considerable fur trade was established with the Indians by the thrifty Dutch, but no attempt was made to settle the country until in 1621 the Dutch West India company was created. By the charter of this company the government of the territory around the Delaware and Hudson rivers, as well as the fur trade of that section, was placed entirely in its hands. But the company took no interest in colonization, preferring to devote its entire attention to the establishment of trading posts and the development of the fur trade.

Hudson. The India companies.

Channing, *United States*, I, 438–446.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, Nos. 150, 151, 153, 154.

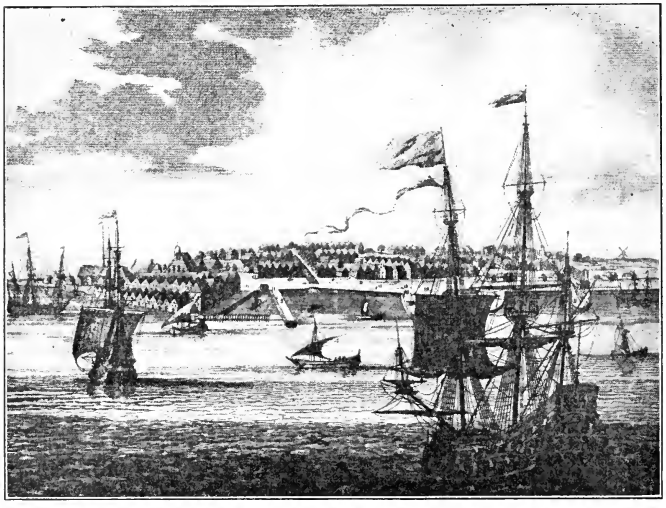
**61. The Province of New Netherland.** — In 1629 the West India company adopted a new policy and promised that any person who should send fifty adults to their American possessions should have lands fronting on either the Hudson

The patroon system.

Channing, *United States*, I, 446–449.

Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Cols.*, I, 133–140.

or the Delaware, sixteen miles on one bank or eight miles on both and extending into the interior. This liberal domain the patroon, as he was called, was to rule as a feudal lord, with power to make laws and hold court for the trial of offenses. All corn was to be ground at his mill and no one should hunt or fish on his domain without his consent. This feudal system appealed to many wealthier members of the company and large landed estates were established along the Hudson. Of these the most extensive was that of the



NEW AMSTERDAM

Van Rensselaers, in which the custom of paying feudal rents persisted until the tenants rebelled about 1840 and gained the right to purchase their lands.

Dutch governors.

Channing, *United States*, I, 450–472.

Governors were sent out by the company to administer its affairs, which they did in a quite unsatisfactory manner. The early governors found it difficult to maintain the authority of the company against the patroons, who were practically independent within the limits of their patroonships. The people of the principal city, New Amsterdam, and in the rest of the colony protested also against the arbi-

trary rule of the governors, and demanded a share in the government. The last and the ablest of the Dutch governors, Stuyvesant, was forced to give New Amsterdam a more liberal government with nine men to advise him, but he made more promises than reforms, and to the last the rule of the Dutch was narrow and arbitrary.

Relations with the Indians.

**62. New Netherland and its Neighbors.** — The location of New Netherland between jealous and comparatively powerful English colonies and its proximity to the most powerful Indian tribe on the continent, the Iroquois, made its position one of no little difficulty. The Dutch avoided conflict with the Iroquois by preserving the friendship established with those Indians by Hudson. This afforded them protection from attack and benefited their trade in fur. Unwise treatment of the Indians near Manhattan Island, however, led to a disastrous war, in which most of the settlements near New Amsterdam were destroyed (1641–1643).

Channing, *United States*, I, 454–458.

Conquest of New Sweden (1655).

On the south the Dutch came into collision with the Swedes, who had made a few settlements on the shores of Delaware Bay. The Dutch claimed the land and warned the Swedes to leave, but no action was taken before 1648, partly because of the governors' indifference and partly because Sweden had aided Holland during the Thirty Years' War which closed that year. After the Peace of Westphalia made all the nations guarantee the independence of Holland, the new governor, Stuyvesant, proceeded against the Swedes and in 1655 New Sweden was brought under Dutch rule.

Channing, *United States*, I, 475–477.

English motives and early attempts.

**63. Conquest of New Netherland (1664).** — By the English the Dutch had been considered intruders from the beginning, because England laid claim to the entire coast on the basis of the Cabot voyages. Aside from the feeling against Holland that sprang from commercial rivalry, England desired to seize the Dutch possessions for several reasons. Dutch occupation of the region between the thriving provinces in New England and in the South was not pleasing to her, their extensive fur trade was an object of envy, and the

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 74–78.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 155.

Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Cols.*, I, 248–269.

Dutch gave offense by helping the colonies to evade the navigation acts. Before 1650 the Dutch had been driven from the valley of the Connecticut by the settlers near Hartford (§ 50), and several English settlements on Long Island had restricted their territory in that direction. When war broke out between England and Holland during the Commonwealth, steps were taken toward conquering New Netherland, but peace was declared before the expedition was ready.

Conquest and reconquest.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 78-82, 89.

Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Cols.*, I, 277–292.

A few years later, the English government decided to take the initiative against Holland by seizing her North American possessions. All of the territory from the Delaware to the Connecticut, and from the Kennebec to the St. Croix, was granted by the king to his brother James, the Duke of York. A fleet was dispatched to New Netherland under the command of four commissioners, who were also to bring Massachusetts to terms (§ 73). New Amsterdam surrendered at once because the citizens refused to fight, much to the disgust of the wrathy governor, Stuyvesant, and the rest of New Netherland surrendered without delay. Several years later, during another war between England and Holland, New Netherland was recaptured by the Dutch, but after a brief period was returned to the English by the Treaty of Westminster (1675).

The people and their government.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 82–100.

**64. The English in New York (1664–1685).** — A large percentage of the inhabitants of New Netherland in 1664 were English, so that the transition from Dutch to English rule was not difficult. A great many laws in force in New England were introduced, but most of the Dutch practices also were recognized. The local government was reorganized so as to give the people a slightly greater share in its work, but the Duke of York would not allow an assembly to be called. Many of the English settlers demanded a representative government, the Puritans on Long Island being particularly insistent, but no action was taken until 1684. In that year the first assembly of the colony distinguished itself by passing a charter of franchises and liberties

which provided for religious toleration, allowed all freeholders to vote, and permitted no taxation without the consent of the people's representatives. This charter was ratified by the Duke of York, but was rejected by him later when, on the death of Charles II, he became king of England with the title of James II. In the year 1684 also Governor Dongan negotiated with the Iroquois a treaty which gained for the English the friendship and help of those able warriors in the long contest with the French which began soon after.

## The Quaker Colonies

The two Jerseys.

**65. New Jersey and the Quakers.** — Before the conquest of New Netherland, the Duke of York granted the territory between the Hudson and the Delaware to two of his favorites, Sir George Carteret and Sir John Berkeley. They were liberal to the colonists, and the inhabitants, many of whom were immigrants from New England, enjoyed a large degree of religious and political freedom, but they quarreled with the proprietors over the making of laws and the payment of land rents, and in 1674 Berkeley sold his share of New Jersey, the western half, to a Quaker who was probably acting for many others of his sect.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 101–111.

The Quakers. West Jersey.

The society of Friends, or Quakers, had been organized in England by George Fox just before the middle of the seventeenth century. The Quakers believed that a person should be guided chiefly by his conscience and not by the dictates of church or writings. For others as well as themselves they claimed the right of worshiping in the way they pleased, so that they were always in favor of religious toleration. They advocated the doctrine of the fellowship of man and carried their belief in equality so far that they refused to remove their hats even in the presence of the king. Desiring to found in the new world a colony in which they might carry their principles into effect, the Quakers made settlements on the east bank of the Delaware and established an extremely liberal government which they were never able

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 113–124.

Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Cols.*, II, 109–113, 140–147.

to put into practice effectively. The success of the Quakers in gaining first West Jersey and later control of East Jersey was due principally to the interest and ability of William Penn.

Pennsylvania charter (1681).

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 38.

**66. Penn and His Colony.** — Because Penn found it impossible to carry out his ideas regarding society and government in New Jersey, he asked the king for a grant of land west of the Delaware River. As he was a man of high rank, the son of an admiral to whom Charles II was indebted in several ways, and a friend of James, Duke of York, he had no difficulty in obtaining from the king a charter which gave him a large territory beyond the Delaware and made him proprietor of that region with the right to govern it, provided that all laws should be made with the consent of the freemen and sent to England for approval. Parliament, however, had the right to levy taxes within the colony and the proprietor was obliged to appoint an agent through whom the English government might exercise some control over the affairs of the province. It will be seen that the home government had profited by the rather bitter experience it had had with those colonies that refused to recognize its authority over them.

WILLIAM PENN

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 165–169, 175–177.

Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Cols.*, II, 114–118, 147–153.

Growth and inhabitants.

Not only were Penn's religious views advanced, but he had long held political ideas which were extreme in the opinion of men of that time. His colony during its early years showed in marked degree the impress of his personality, and under

his wise and able guidance, grew as no other had done. At the end of four years it contained eight thousand inhabitants, and Philadelphia had become the third city on the continent. English Quakers came in large numbers, but there were numerous Englishmen of different denominations, and many Swedes, Hollanders, Germans, Frenchmen, and Scotchmen. Most of these were attracted by the well-known liberal ideas of Penn and his promise of religious freedom and political rights.

Andrews, *Col. Self Gov't*, 189–191, and Greene, *Provincial America*, 230–234.

Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Cols.*, II, 153–158, 320–329.

**67. The Government of Pennsylvania.** — Penn did not disappoint his colonists, for as early as 1682 he issued a Frame of Government by which he shared with the people the powers of government granted to him as proprietor. At the same time he announced laws which assured a larger number of individual rights than were enjoyed then in any other colony in America. At first the government was composed of a governor and of two large unwieldy houses called the council and the assembly, both of which were elected by the freemen. All laws were proposed by the governor and council, the assembly having no authority except to ratify or reject bills under consideration.

Early government.

MacDonald, *Charters*, Nos. 40, 41, 44.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 182–184, 191–194.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, III, 483–489.

This cumbersome legislature did not work well, and in 1701 Penn gave the colony a new "Charter of Privileges." This reaffirmed religious liberty to all who believed in God, and declared that any one who believed in Jesus Christ as the Savior of the world was qualified to hold office. The charter provided that laws should be made by an assembly, and left the local government in the hands of the people. The charter might be amended by the governor and six sevenths of the assembly. Under it, until 1776, Pennsylvania and Delaware had separate legislatures, although ruled by the same governor.

Charter of Privileges (1701).

Macdonald, *Charters*, No. 46.

Fiske, *Quaker Cols.*, II, 309–311.

In his dealings with the Indians, Penn was just and fair. His famous treaty of 1682 under the "Penn elm" was said by Voltaire to be "the only treaty between savages and Christians that was never sworn to and that was never broken." Like Roger Williams and many other early

Penn and the Indians.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 162.

Fiske, *Quaker Cols.*, II, 158–166.

settlers his aim was to pay the red men a reasonable sum for the lands occupied.

Colonial boundary disputes.

Greene, *Provincial America*, 190–192.

**68. Boundaries of Pennsylvania.** — The exact boundaries of the land granted to Penn in his charter were long in dispute because his territory conflicted with that already granted to several of the other colonies. Pennsylvania was not alone in this heritage of boundary disputes because grants overlapped; but, as the latest of the northern colonies, her boundary difficulties affected more provinces than those of almost any other colony and may be considered in some degree typical of the boundary wars waged by most of the seventeenth-century pioneers. It would naturally be supposed that as late as 1681 the geography of the Delaware and Susquehanna regions would be known accurately, but such was not the case. Penn's grant was to extend 5° west from the Delaware River and 3° north and south along that river.[1] Penn, having acquired Delaware in 1682 and having several settlements in Pennsylvania south of the fortieth parallel and desiring a port on Chesapeake Bay, argued that the "beginning" of the fortieth parallel, which, according to the charter, was the southern boundary of Pennsylvania, must have meant the southern boundary of the zone which was the fortieth from the equator, that is, parallel 39. This claim he could not establish, as the northern boundary of Maryland was 40° also, and it was not until 1760 that the English government decided the controversy by locating the dividing line between the two colonies at 39° 42′. The boundary was surveyed by two skilled mathematicians, Mason and Dixon, from whom

Penn's grant.

Andrews *Col. Self-Gov't.*, 171–175.

Hinsdale, *Old Northwest*, 98–104, 108–110.

[1] Its southern boundary was a semicircular line drawn from twelve miles north and west of New Castle "unto the beginning of the fortieth degree of northern latitude and then by a straight line westward." The northern boundary was the beginning of the three and fortieth degree of northern latitude. As the fortieth parallel had been given as the northern boundary of Maryland (§ 54), the expression, the "beginning" of the fortieth degree probably meant the same as the fortieth parallel of Baltimore's grant, but as a matter of fact, the fortieth parallel is much more than twelve miles north of New Castle, so that it would be impossible to survey such a line as Penn's southern limit called for.

it has since been known as "Mason and Dixon's Line," a name applied later to the boundary between the slave and the free states.

On the north there was doubt about whether the boundary was the forty-third or the forty-second parallel. New York, wishing to retain as much territory as possible and unwilling to grant Pennsylvania any jurisdiction over the six Iroquois nations, contended with success for the lower boundary. When this boundary was decided upon finally, there was no longer any conflict with Massachusetts, which did not claim land south of 42°. The dispute with Connecticut under her sea-to-sea charter involved an attempt on the part of Connecticut to settle the northern part of Pennsylvania, especially Wyoming valley, but the whole territory was assigned to Pennsylvania by the Congress of the Confederation soon after the Revolutionary War.

Northern boundary disputes.

Hinsdale, *Old Northwest*, 110–119.

**BOUNDARY DISPUTES OF PENNSYLVANIA**

## The South after the Restoration (1660–1730)

**69. Misgovernment in Virginia (1660–1676).** — For several years during the Commonwealth the people of Virginia attempted in an irregular way to govern themselves, but with the restoration of Charles II the old order was reestablished. During the years following the Restoration, Sir William Berkeley was governor of Virginia. Of a despotic temper, he used his office to the personal advantage of himself and his royal master, appointing worthless

Political grievances.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 207–214.

Doyle, *Eng. Cols.*, I, 230–245.

nobles to positions of importance and profit. To maintain better his hold on the government, he kept in office the strongly royalist legislature elected during the excitement following the return of Charles II. For three years no election occurred in Virginia, the appointive system now being used exclusively for local offices. Meanwhile the electoral law was changed so as to exclude all but freeholders, a select class in a colony of plantations. Corruption and misrule held sway in both colonial and local affairs.

Economic grievances.

Fiske, *Old Virginia*, II, 46–54.

The discontent due to these grievances was aggravated by the navigation act of 1660 which forbade the exportation of tobacco to any country but England (§ 58). Prices fell and hard times prevailed. As though this were not enough, Charles, in 1673, rented Virginia for thirty-one years to two of his favorites, Arlington and Culpepper. They received the right to make grants of land, had the absolute control of the important local offices, and appointed all pastors. Fortunately most of these privileges were surrendered in return for a duty on tobacco, showing that the patentees were chiefly interested in the revenue to be obtained from the colony.

Bacon and Berkeley.

Larned (ed.), *Ready Ref.*, V, 3632–3634.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 215–226.

70. **Bacon's Rebellion (1676).** — The discontent of the Virginians was brought to a head by Indian massacres on the frontier. Governor Berkeley had erected forts for the protection of the outlying settlements and refused to send troops or grant commissions to raise troops. Thereupon Nathaniel Bacon, a young and headstrong but able planter whose overseer had been murdered, gathered a force, and, defying Berkeley's orders, marched into the Indian country. The colony was now in great disorder and demanded a new election of burgesses. This was held, Bacon being among those chosen. The new legislature repealed the restrictive suffrage law and enacted other laws granting greater civil and political liberty. Bacon and Berkeley made their peace, which was broken soon, as neither had confidence in the other. During the civil strife that ensued, Jamestown was burned and Bacon died, the rebellion collapsing with

his death. Berkeley, again supreme, hanged the leaders of the rebellion and secured the repeal of many liberal laws which had been passed in 1676.[1] Unfortunately the rebellion deprived the colony of a very liberal charter which lacked only the king's signature at the beginning of the disturbance.

**71. The Carolina Charters (1663–1665).** — The interest taken in colonial matters during the years following the Restoration is shown clearly in the early history of Carolina. Several of the most prominent courtiers, including Clarendon and Shaftesbury, obtained from Charles in 1663 a charter which made them proprietors of the land lying south of Virginia and extending from sea to sea. Over this vast domain the absolute power of the proprietors was limited only by the provision that the laws should be made with the consent of the freemen represented in an assembly and that "the faith, allegiance and sovereign domain" due to the crown should not be impaired. Perhaps the most notable clause of the charter was the one permitting the proprietors to grant perfect religious freedom to such of the loyal settlers as they desired — a clause of which we are glad to say advantage was taken. Two years later the limits of the colony were extended still further south and one half degree farther north, making the boundary between Virginia and the new colony of Carolina practically the same as the present southern boundary of Virginia.

Provisions of the two charters.

MacDonald, *Charters*, Nos. 26, 32.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't* 130–138.

**72. Proprietary Government in Carolina (1667–1729).** — For the government of their Carolina province very elaborate "Fundamental Constitutions" were drawn for the proprietors by the philosopher, John Locke. This cumbersome document provided for a feudal system in which the chief landowners were the proprietors and nobles whom they appointed. No land was to be sold after forty years, so as to make this mediæval system permanent. The government was to be in the hands of the proprietors and nobles,

Locke's Fundamental Constitutions (1669).

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 33.

[1] King Charles II is reported to have said of Berkeley: "That old fool has hanged more men in that naked country than I have done for the murder of my father."

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 139–141.

Fiske, *Old Virginia*, II, 272–276,

although there was to be a parliament for members of which all freeholders owning estates of fifty acres might vote. A degree of religious liberty was permitted to churches of at least seven members, though not to separate individuals. It is needless to say that these constitutions never went into effect. The proprietors waited until the development of the colonies should warrant their use, but that time never came.

Social and political changes (1670–1729).

Winsor (ed.), *America*, V, 311-316, 322–327.

The growth of Carolina was by no means rapid and few settlements were added in northern Carolina to those existing when the proprietors received their patent. In southern Carolina Charleston was founded in 1672 and a few other towns begun by the English. A large percentage of the inhabitants were Scotch highlanders and French Huguenots drawn thither by the promise of religious freedom. Political liberty also was enjoyed to an unusual degree, for the people exerted a great influence in local government and their representatives chose part of the council or upper house of the legislature. The time came when the voters believed that the proprietors were selecting more than their share of the councilors. A rebellion followed (1719), with an overwhelming victory for the people, who selected a governor and asked the king to accept South Carolina as a royal province, which he did. Ten years later all rights of the proprietors were extinguished by purchase.

## New England (1655–1685)

Quakers in Massachusetts (1655–1660).

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, Nos. 140–142.

Doyle, *Eng. Cols.*, III, 100-114.

**73. Problems of New England (1655–1675).** — During the later years of the Commonwealth the Puritan colonies had considerable trouble with the Quakers, who were driven out from England by harsh measures. Severe laws were made by the colonies in the New England Confederacy, particularly against those who returned after being sent away. Massachusetts in 1658 made it a capital offense for any Quaker to return to the colony. This law was opposed by a large part of the population and when it was enforced by putting to death three Quakers, the protests

were so loud that the law was changed. In fact after 1660 the colony was much more liberal in its treatment of non-Puritans than it had been before.

New charters.

Soon after Charles II came to the throne in 1660, he united the colonies of Connecticut and New Haven by giving a charter to the former, as New Haven had incurred the royal displeasure by harboring judges who had condemned to death Charles I. Rhode Island and Providence also received a charter in 1663.

MacDonald, *Charters*, Nos. 24–27.

Massachusetts and the king (1660–1664).

A number of complaints had been made against Massachusetts at this time, because she had been domineering in her treatment of her weaker neighbors and on account of her independent spirit. Under the Commonwealth, *e.g.* she had coined "pine tree shillings," thus exercising a sovereign power, and in 1661 she had issued a declaration of rights. Nevertheless the charter of Massachusetts was confirmed by Charles in 1662, on condition that the colony acknowledge the supremacy of England and grant to members of the Anglican church freedom of worship and the right to vote on the same terms as Puritans. In form Massachusetts complied with these requests which affected so deeply her religious and political policy, but no change was made in her relations with England, and, as her ministers alone registered those eligible to vote, members of the church of England did not often enjoy a share in the government. In 1664 the commissioners who had charge of the expedition against New Netherland (§ 63) were instructed to investigate affairs in New England also. These men complained that Massachusetts was not fulfilling the conditions imposed by the king in 1662, but the home government was too much interested in other matters to correct her refractory colony until ten years later.

PINE TREE SHILLING

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't* 47–48, 70–72.

**74. King Philip's War (1675–1676).** — The constant en-

Events and results.

croachments of the English settlers on the lands of the Indians made collision inevitable. Under the lead of Philip, chief of the Wampanoags, these Indians agreed with other tribes to exterminate the whites. The first blow was struck in June, 1675, at Swansea in Plymouth, near the Rhode Island border. Other towns were burned and the inhabitants were slain, the war parties retiring before help could come from other settlements. After six months of this horrible border warfare a thousand men were sent against the stronghold of the Narragansetts, which was captured after severe loss and completely destroyed. From this time the warfare increased in bitterness on the one side and barbarity on the other until in August, 1676, Philip was killed and the last Indian braves were hunted from their retreats. Many of the luckless survivors of this struggle, including women and children, were sent to the West Indies to be sold into slavery. By this pitiless course all danger from the red men was removed, but the colonies were left in an exhausted condition. Many of the towns had been entirely destroyed, hundreds of men had been killed, crops had been burned so that famine was narrowly averted, and trade had almost ceased.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 252–256.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, Nos. 133,134.

Larned (ed.), *Ready Ref.*, III, 2310–2313.

Complaints against Massachusetts.

**75. Massachusetts and the Crown (1675–1684).** — Matters had now reached a crisis in the Bay colony. The indifference of Massachusetts to the demands of the English government and her arrogance in her treatment of those with whom she had dealings, especially in New Hampshire and Maine, culminated in a series of complaints so serious that definite action was taken against Massachusetts. Among the more serious charges were: (1) her disregard of the rights of the Mason and Gorges heirs along the coast to the north; (2) the failure to give political and religious rights to non-Puritans in accordance with the requests of the king (1662); (3) the evasion of the acts of trade which forbade commerce with nations other than England; and (4) the general independent attitude of the colonists shown in their separate coinage of money, their refusal to allow

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 256–262.

appeals from colonial courts to those of the king, and their neglect to send to England an agent through whom the colony might be controlled.

The case of New Hampshire was settled by making the colony a royal province. Massachusetts tried to end that of Maine by purchasing the rights of the Gorges heirs, but as this was done without the knowledge or consent of King Charles, it aroused still greater feeling against Massachusetts. During this period the business of the English government in the colony was intrusted to Edward Randolph, an honest but exceedingly narrow man and a partisan of Massachusetts' enemies, who used his authority in such a way as to widen the breach between the mother country and the none too conciliatory Puritan leaders. Although Massachusetts, taking alarm at last, agreed to yield on every question, the king was in no mood for half measures and in 1684 the charter of the colony was annulled. At this time Charles had come very largely under the influence of Louis XIV of France, and was showing himself a monarch fond of absolute government. Not only did he deprive Massachusetts of her charter, with good reason it must be admitted, but he proceeded also against the charters of London and other English cities, and before his death prepared to annul the charters of the inoffensive colonies of Rhode Island and Connecticut.

Revocation of the charter (1684).

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't* 262–265.

## The Great Revolution (1685–1700)

**76. The Dominion of New England.** — Before 1685 many English merchants and officials had favored the consolidation of the northern colonies under a single governor who could then govern them more perfectly in the interests of England. The death of Charles II in 1685 left the execution of this plan to James II who was more opposed to popular government than his brother had been. Under the name of the Dominion of New England, James united all the colonies from Acadia to the Delaware, naming Sir Edmund Andros as governor. The difficulty caused by

Consolidation of the northern colonies.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 265–272.

Fiske, *New England*, 267–272.

Doyle, *Eng. Cols.*, III, 234–236, 242–249.

the existence of charters in Rhode Island and Connecticut was solved by demanding the surrender of those documents. Rhode Island agreed to submit and Connecticut did not hold out, although she failed to part with her charter, tradition asserting that when Andros sought to obtain it, the charter was spirited away and hidden in the "charter oak."

Government of the Dominion.

Doyle, *Eng. Cols.*, III, 234–239.

Full and arbitrary instructions were issued to Andros by the king. The governor, who was a soldier rather than a politician, obeyed the letter of his instructions, carrying out the wishes of James with such care and so little tact that the period of his rule is often referred to as "the tyranny of Andros." During his term no popular assembly was called nor was any town allowed to hold town meetings except once a year. Laws were made and taxes levied by the governor and councilors appointed by Andros, being executed by agents of the governor. There were no courts except those held by judges whom the governor selected. No papers or books were printed unless they first received the approval of James's representatives.

Changes affecting church and society.

Doyle, *Eng. Cols.*, III, 239–243.

This arbitrary government was of course offensive to people who were sticklers for their political rights, but it caused even less opposition to the new administration than certain acts which affected religious prejudices and the rights of property. Preference was given now to the Anglican church and services were held according to the rites of the church of England in the Old South meeting house. Marriages could be celebrated only by an Anglican clergyman, and as there was but one in the colony all persons who wished to marry must journey to Boston, a trip as tedious as the service itself was distasteful. Many who held lands with titles in dispute were obliged to prove their rights at great cost, the impression being general that no one's land was safe from attack. Under these circumstances there was little wonder that in Massachusetts at least the caldron of revolution was on the point of boiling over.

77. **The Revolution of 1689 in England and New England.** — This happened when news was brought in April,

1689, that William of Orange had landed in England and that James had fled from the kingdom. During the three years of his reign James had incurred the displeasure and aroused the opposition of class after class of the population. His claim that he might suspend any law he pleased, coupled with his attempt to control the courts for his own benefit, his open help to Catholics, and his utter disregard for the civil rights which the people had wrested from his father and brother, united the nation against him. So long as the people expected that at his death the crown would pass to his daughter, Mary, and her husband, his nephew, William of Orange, they remained passive, but when a prince was born who would probably be brought up a Catholic, a number of leaders invited William to come to England and help them preserve their liberties. With the flight of James and the selection by the people's representatives of William and Mary as the rulers of England, the long contest between parliament and the king ended in the complete supremacy of the former. The principal results of the revolution were embodied in the Bill of Rights (1689) and in several supplementary acts. They assured the frequent meetings of parliament, and control by that body of taxation, the army, and other important subjects; they guaranteed freedom of the press and religious toleration for all Protestants; and they prevented the king from setting aside laws or removing judges at his pleasure.

Causes and results in England.

Cheyney, *England*, 500–514.

When news of James's flight reached Massachusetts, the frigate in the harbor and all fortifications about Boston were seized, Andros and other officials were imprisoned, and a temporary government similar to that under the old charter was established. There was no bloodshed, but the overthrow of the government of Andros was complete. Rhode Island and Connecticut resumed the use of their charters, which they had never surrendered, but Massachusetts did not have a regularly organized government until in 1691 a new charter of a semi-popular type was issued by William and Mary. To Massachusetts Bay Colony

Reëstablishment of charter government in New England.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 42.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 136.

Fiske, *New England*, 272–278.

were added Plymouth and the islands south of Plymouth, as well as the English provinces beginning with Maine eastward to Acadia, which was included. The people were allowed to resume the government of their towns by town meetings and were also permitted to elect an assembly, the assembly in turn choosing the governor's council. The governor, the lieutenant governor, and the secretary were appointed by the crown, as in New York and Virginia. Under this quite liberal charter Massachusetts was governed until her separation from Great Britain (1776).

Leisler's Rebellion.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 283–287.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 157.

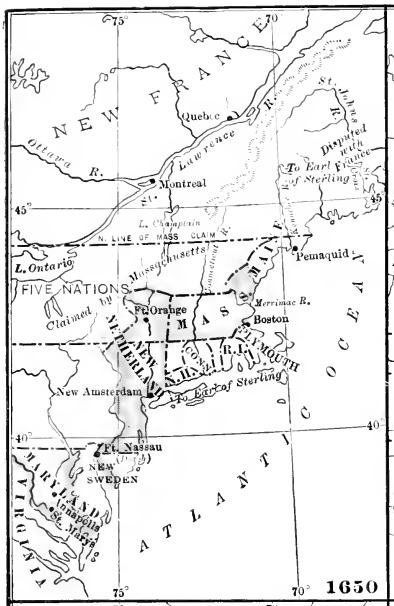
78. **Revolutionary Movements in the Middle and Southern Colonies.** — In New York (the lower part of the Dominion of New England) Andros's lieutenant, Nicholson, attempted to maintain his authority after news had been received that James had been driven from England, and that Andros was a prisoner at Boston. Taking advantage of this, the opponents of Nicholson, led by a merchant, Jacob Leisler, gained possession of the province. The new monarchs were proclaimed, an assembly was called, and for nearly two years the laws were administered by Leisler, whose authority was not recognized officially. When a governor was finally sent over, Leisler, now cordially hated by a large part of the population, yielded of necessity. He was tried on the charge of treason and condemned, being put to death when his successor, while intoxicated, was induced to sign his death warrant. This unwise and unjust "judicial murder" involved the colony in serious internal dissensions. "Leisler's Rebellion," however, had shown the strength of the popular party and from that time New York enjoyed a fair degree of self-government.

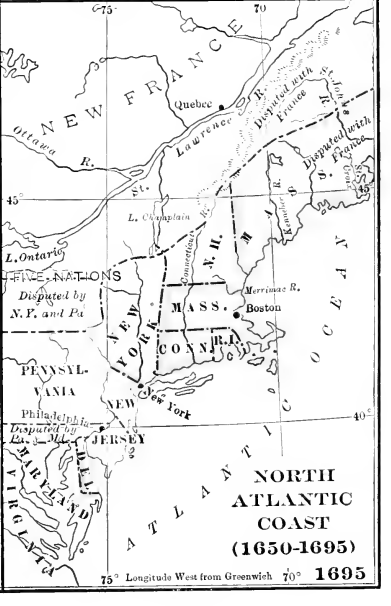
Results in Maryland.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 79–283.

Browne, *Maryland*, 147–156.

Maryland failed to proclaim the new monarchs because the messenger whom Baltimore had sent with instructions to recognize the new government died before reaching the colony. The anti-Catholic party took advantage of this neglect, captured the officials who favored Baltimore, and claimed the province for William and Mary. The monarchs decided to keep the government of Maryland in their own



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hands, although they did not interfere with the revenues or land rights of Baltimore, but it was a quarter century before another and Protestant Lord Baltimore regained political control of the colony.

Doyle, *Eng. Cols.*, I, 264–274.

**79. Results of the Revolution in America.** — It will be noted that the changes in America following the Revolution of 1689 were of the first magnitude. It will be noted also that they were not the results simply of the revolutionary movement in England, but of several minor revolutions in this country, which were due to causes exclusively American, although the expulsion of James furnished the occasion for the overthrow of arbitrary rule in the colonies. Throughout the Dominion of New England the arbitrary government established by James was replaced by constitutional government. Connecticut and Rhode Island resumed the use of their old charters. Massachusetts secured less complete self-government than she had enjoyed before 1684, but in New York there was a great advance over the system in use at all former times. A second result of considerable importance was the failure of the scheme for the consolidation of the colonies. Union, even under the later kings, would have been injurious, for the colonies owed a very large amount of their experience in self-government and their numerous political privileges to their separateness.

Reestablishment of separate charter governments.

Greene, *Provincial America*, 17–24.

In some ways the reign of William III was not especially favorable to colonial liberty. The king expressly and emphatically denied to the colonies the rights which the Bill of Rights guaranteed throughout the length and breadth of England. Religious toleration of all except Catholics was extended to the colonies, but if any colonies enjoyed freedom of the press and the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*, it was because the charters of the colonies made it impossible for the monarch to control their policy in those matters. The increase of the power of parliament due to the Revolution led to the reënactment of the old laws of trade and the passage of several laws prohibiting colonial manufactures (§ 120). During this period also

Colonial policy of England after 1689.

Greene, *Provincial America*, 30–38, 46–62.

the English government perfected means for controlling the colonies by establishing a permanent "Board of Trade and Plantations" (1696), whose members were popularly called "the Lords of Trade." This board gradually took charge of almost all matters referring to the colonies, including the right to decide all matters which had been adjudged in the highest court of any colony, if either party wished to appeal from the decision of the colonial court.

Territorial changes (1660–1700).

**80. The Colonies in 1700.** — It may be well to consider for a moment the changes in the extent of English territory and in the relation of the colonies to the mother country that had taken place in the last four decades of the seventeenth century. At the time of the Restoration there had been two well-defined groups of colonies, the New England group, extending as far north as the Kennebec, and the southern colonies, with their frontier settlements a short distance south of the James. By the conquest of New Netherland, England came into possession of the intervening territory and by settlements in Carolina had extended the frontier almost to the Savannah River. Although the settlers had continued to push into the interior, the frontier line was but little farther from the coast in 1700 than in 1660. Immigration from England had been fairly extensive and the population of the colonies, estimated at 60,000 in 1660, had become 250,000 in 1700.

Colonial policy after 1660.

Before 1660 England had no colonial policy. Since the Restoration it had organized the colonies, brought many of them directly under the royal authority, and had created a board which had charge of all colonial affairs. It had passed numerous acts of trade which regulated the commerce of the colonies, primarily in the interests of England, but not always to the disadvantage of the colonies.

TOPICS

1. The Beginning of Pennsylvania: Fiske, "Dutch and Quaker Colonies," II, pp. 147–167; Bancroft, "United States," I, 552–573; Winsor (ed.), "America," III, pp. 476–495.

2. Boundary Difficulties of Pennsylvania: Hinsdale, "Old Northwest," 98–119; Fisher, "Making of Pennsylvania," pp. 318–354.

3. Bacon's Rebellion: Fiske, "Old Virginia," pp. 45–107; Doyle, "English Colonies," I, pp. 230–257; Cooke, "Virginia," pp. 216–297.

4. King Philip's War: Bancroft, "United States," I, 382–394; Fiske, "New England," pp. 211–241; Doyle, "English Colonies," III, pp. 153–189.

5. Massachusetts and the Crown, during Reign of Charles II: Bancroft, "United States," I, 367–381, 395–406; Doyle, "Colonies," III, pp. 130–152, 190–208, 214–226; Palfrey, "New England," II, pp. 28–36, 56–63, 71–80, 210–260.

### STUDIES

1. Early navigation acts. (Winsor (ed.), "America," VI, pp. 5–10.)

2. The patroon system. (MacDonald, "Charters," No. 9.)

3. Wars of England and Holland. (Griffis, Motley's "Dutch Republic," pp. 832–847.)

4. Evolution of New York. (Janvier, "In Old New York.")

5. Early history of Wall Street. (Goodwin *et al.* (eds.), "History of New York," I, pp. 77–118.)

6. Character of William Penn.

7. Overthrow of proprietary government in South Carolina. Doyle, "English Colonies," I, 376–380.

8. Puritans and Anglicans after the revolution of 1689. (Greene, "Provincial America," pp. 83–105.)

### QUESTIONS

1. What degree of self-government had the people of New Netherland gained under Dutch rule? What were the lasting results of Dutch occupation? Compare the situation in New Netherland in 1663 with that in the South African Republic in 1898.

2. Compare fully the powers of Penn as proprietor with those of Baltimore. In what respects was Pennsylvania at an early date more like the states of to-day than any of the other colonies?

3. What were the real causes of Bacon's rebellion? What were the results and the real significance of this movement?

4. On what grounds might a colonial charter be amended? be revoked? Should Massachusetts have been allowed to retain her charter after 1664? Compare the complaints after 1660 with those after 1676. Were the latter more serious?

5. Compare the period 1618–1640 with that from 1660 to 1682 as to (*a*) interest in colonization, (*b*) causes of colonization, (*c*) number of colonies established, and (*d*) total settled area at close of the period.

# CHAPTER V

## RIVALRY OF FRENCH AND ENGLISH (1689–1763)

| French Kings | English Rulers |
|---|---|
| Henry IV (1589–1610) | William III (1689–1702) |
| Louis XIII (1610–1643) | Anne (1702–1714) |
| Louis XIV (1643–1715) | George I (1714–1727) |
| Louis XV (1715–1774) | George II (1727–1760) |
| | George III (1760–1820) |

Wars between France and England.

Seelye, *Expansion of England*, Chapter II.

**81. Introduction.** — The year 1689 is notable for the changes which it wrought in the internal development of England and the English colonies, but is almost as important in the intercolonial history of America, because it marks the beginning of a long conflict between the provinces of England and France in the new world. During the years from 1689 to 1750 the European wars in which these two countries engaged were accompanied naturally by military engagements in the colonies, although these were of minor significance. About 1750 began the real contest between the two powers for the control of the continent — a struggle short and really one-sided, which ended in the complete supremacy of the English and the expulsion of the French from North America. In this chapter we shall consider not only the more important events in the intercolonial wars and study the progress of both French and English colonies after 1689, but shall take up briefly also the earlier history of the interesting ventures of the French in America.

### French Exploration and Settlement

France under Henry IV.

**82. Founding of New France.** — With the accession of Henry IV (1589), there came a new era of prosperity in France. Deadly civil and religious wars ceased, commerce

revived, and industry received new impetus. Interest in colonization kept pace with the development in other directions, and several settlements were attempted in Acadia. One of these under the lead of De Monts was established at Port Royal (1604) and proved successful temporarily.

Adams, *French Nation*, 177–188.

Among the companions of De Monts was a young man of great energy and foresight, who believed that the St. Lawrence basin offered a better location for trading, exploration, and permanent settlement. This man, Samuel de Champlain, founded Quebec in 1608 and soon perceived that his only hope of holding the country and gaining the interior was to make friends with the Indians of the St. Lawrence valley. But the Algonquins living on the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa rivers, together with the Huron Indians to the west, had for many years waged almost incessant war with the Five Nations of the Long House in central New York. The allies of Champlain persuaded him therefore to join them in expeditions against the Iroquois. The first of these in 1609 brought him to the shores of the lake now called by his name, where a single well-aimed shot from his arquebus put to flight the Mohawks who opposed him and brought upon the French the enmity of the most powerful Indian confederacy in North America. A few weeks after this momentous battle, Henry Hudson entertained some Mohawks at a point near the present city of Albany, only a little over one hundred miles away, and gained the goodwill of the Iroquois. Although he was responsible for this disastrous hostility of the Iroquois to the French, Champlain deserves all the credit for the success of New France, for he

Champlain in the St. Lawrence valley (1608–1635).

CHAMPLAIN

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 39.

Thwaites, *France in America*, 16–22.

Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 88–106, 120–124.

took part in numerous exploring expeditions and kept the sickly little hamlet alive through his unflagging zeal and unwearied efforts. In 1629, however, Quebec was captured by the English with the help of some French Huguenots, and it was returned to France at the close of the war only through the influence of Richelieu, who had recently interested himself in France's American possessions. In 1635 Champlain died and so little did New France prosper that a half century after Quebec was founded there were only about two thousand persons in the colony.

Classes that extended French sway.

Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 130–134, 180–185.

**83. Exploration of the West.** — The work of extending French influence in the West was carried on by three different classes: (1) the Jesuit missionaries who, before the middle of the seventeenth century, had established missions as far south as the Iroquois country, and as far west as Sault Ste. Marie; (2) the fur traders who found they could make greater profits by visiting the more distant tribes; and (3) the explorers who desired to extend the political sway of France rather than her religious or commercial interests.

Early explorers. La Salle.

Fiske, *Disc. of America*, II, 53–58.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, I, No. 43.

The earliest of western explorers, Nicollet, launched his canoe on a tributary of the Mississippi about 1640, but it was not until 1673 that Marquette and Joliet explored that river, which they descended as far as the Arkansas. The work of these men was completed by the greatest American explorer, Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, who proposed to gain possession of the whole interior and maintain this hold by means of a chain of forts situated at strategic points. In spite of almost overwhelming odds and amid the greatest difficulties, he clung to his single purpose of making New France the strongest colony in America. His explorations began in 1669 with a trip via Lake Erie to the Ohio River. Ten years later he sought to explore the Mississippi to its mouth. After two futile expeditions filled with difficulties, his third expedition met with success and on April 9, 1682, La Salle planted the standard of France where the Mississippi River pours its vast volume into the Gulf of Mexico and claimed the whole territory drained by it for

Louis XIV. He next proceeded to France, told the king his plans, and asked permission to settle at the mouth of the Mississippi, to build a chain of forts from this point to the colony of Canada, and to drive out the Spaniards who claimed the country. An expedition was fitted out, but by accident came to Texas. Here La Salle was shot in 1687 by one of his own men.

Early settlement.

**84. Louisiana (1699–1720).** — La Salle's plan was not abandoned, although nothing further was done until after the first intercolonial war. In 1699 a settlement was made at Biloxi, but it was abandoned, the colonists moving to Mobile in 1701. Both the English and the Spanish protested against this occupancy of the gulf region, the former on the ground that this land was covered by previous grants made by English kings, the latter because of her discoveries and explorations and her settlements in Florida and on the Mexican coast. The Spaniards had in fact occupied the best harbor on the coast, that of Pensacola, as early as 1696, in the hope of preventing further French attempts at colonization. Louisiana did not grow rapidly, but in 1718 New Orleans was founded and forts were placed at commanding points on the Mississippi and Red rivers, so that all other nations were effectively excluded from the Mississippi basin. About this time attention was called to the Louisiana settlements by the speculations in the stock of the French Mississippi company under the manipulations of the Scotchman, John Law. The bursting of the "Mississippi Bubble" did much in the end to injure the colony.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, Nos. 109, 110.

Thwaites, *France in America*, 72–88.

Ogg, *Mississippi*, 169–204.

Parkman, *Half Century*, I, 288–314.

## French and English Colonies (1689–1754)

Beginning of the hundred years' war (1689–1697).

**85. The Treaty of Utrecht (1713).** — Before the French had gained a foothold at the mouth of the Mississippi, the colony of New France became engaged in two conflicts with the English on the Atlantic coast. These wars were of European origin, caused by differences between France and England. The first followed the Revolution of 1689 and the attempt made by Louis XIV to regain the throne of England

for James II. For the French, the contest in America was ably conducted by the most capable of a long line of able governors, the Count of Frontenac. At the close of the war the French retained the territory draining into the Hudson Bay and all lands occupied by them at the beginning of the conflict.[1]

War of the Spanish Succession (1702–1713).

But five years elapsed before the ambitions of France again involved that country in a European conflict,[2] when Louis XIV sought to place upon the throne of Spain his grandson, Philip of Anjou, to whom the late Spanish king had left his scepter. The coalition against France was remarkably successful during the long war that followed, and in America the English colonists gained possession of territory in Acadia, Newfoundland, and farther north.

Treaty of Utrecht (1713).

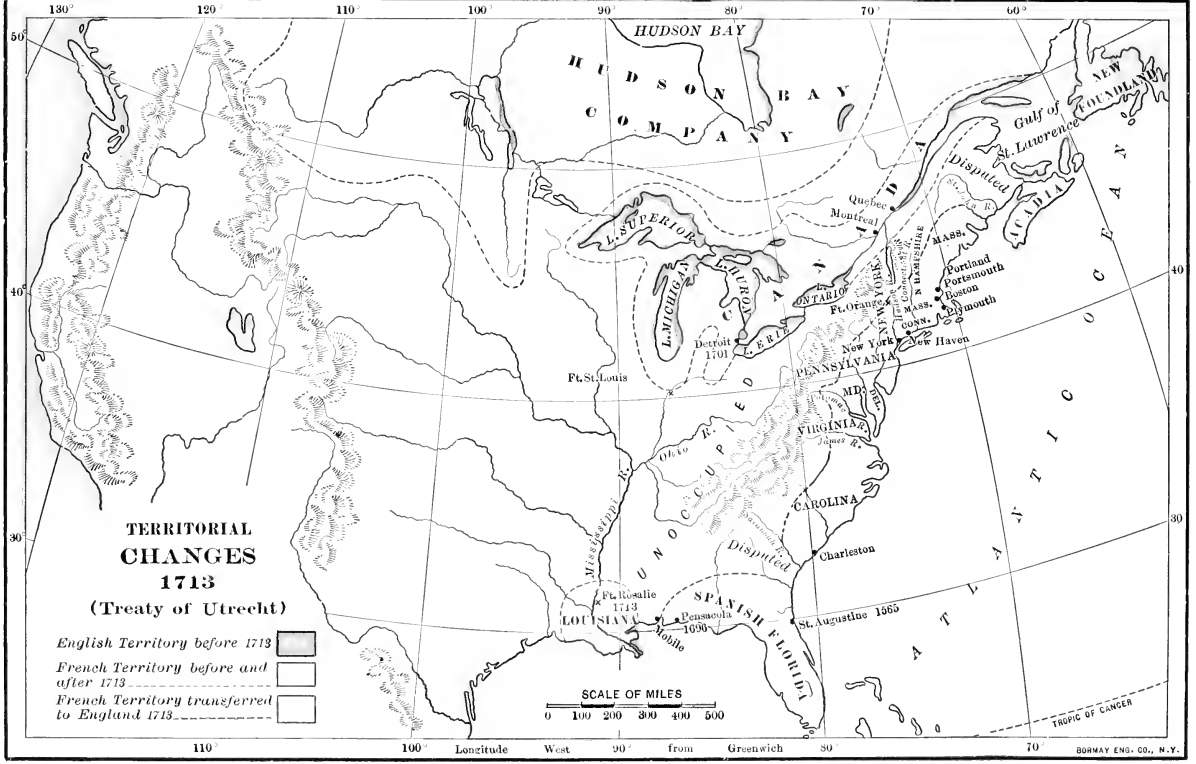
MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 47.

The war was brought to a close in 1713 by the Treaty of Utrecht. England was able to make peace on very favorable terms because of her successes everywhere. She allowed Philip to retain his position, but only on condition that the two thrones of France and Spain should never be united. While France was permitted to keep Canada and Louisiana, England gained possession of the entire area draining into Hudson Bay, the whole of Newfoundland, and Acadia according to its most ancient limits. This last provision was to be a bone of contention for fifty years, as France wished to restrict England to the peninsula called Nova Scotia and England claimed Cape Breton Island and the mainland to the north and west as far as the St. Lawrence and the Penobscot. According to the treaty the French were allowed to catch fish off Newfoundland, with the privilege of drying their fish on parts of the island, the earliest attempt to regulate by treaty the rights of different nations in the fisheries.[3]

[1] The Treaty of Ryswick (1697) brought to a close this war, known in colonial history as King William's War.

[2] In the colonies this war was called Queen Anne's War, in Europe it was known as the War of the Spanish Succession.

[3] The treaty stated also that France should never molest the Five Nations "subject to the dominion of Great Britain." France of course


TERRITORIAL
CHANGES
1713
(Treaty of Utrecht)
English Territory before 1713
French Territory before and after 1713
French Territory transferred to England 1713
HUDSON BAY
HUDSON BAY COMPANY
NEW FOUNDLAND
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Disputed
ACADIA
Quebec
Montreal
SUPERIOR
L. MICHIGAN
HURON
ONTARIO
L. ERIE
Detroit 1701
Ft. Orange
NEW YORK
MASS.
Portland
Portsmouth
Boston
Plymouth
CONN.
New Haven
New York
PENNSYLVANIA
MD.
VIRGINIA
James R.
Ohio R.
Ft. St. Louis
UNOCCUPIED
CAROLINA
Charleston
Disputed
Mississippi R.
Ft. Rosalie 1713
LOUISIANA
Pensacola 1696
Mobile
SPANISH FLORIDA
St. Augustine 1565
ATLANTIC OCEAN
TROPIC OF CANCER
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
130° 120° 110° 100° 90° 80° 70° 60°
50° 40° 30°
110° 100° Longitude West 90° from Greenwich 80° 70°
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**86. Georgia.** — The thirty years between the Treaty of Utrecht and the third war between England and France was a period of expansion and development for both parties. With both it was a time of preparation for the conflict which was to determine the possession of the continent, but the preparation of the French, carefully planned as it was, proved to be less perfect than the growth of the sturdy English colonies which were less conscious of the impending crisis and apparently did nothing to make ready for it. The two historical events of the period which particularly deserve attention were the settlement of Georgia and the conflicts between the governors and the assemblies in a majority of the colonies.

Peaceful growth (1713–1744).

Georgia was founded by James Edward Oglethorpe and several associates who desired to establish a colony in which debtors might get a new start. They obtained from the king a charter to land from the Savannah to the Altamaha rivers and westward to the Pacific. This was to be governed by a council in which the people had no choice. The inhabitants, except Roman Catholics, were to have religious freedom and all were to enjoy the rights of Englishmen. The trustees of the colony sought to prevent the growth of large plantations by forbidding negro slavery and restricting the amount of land held by one person. They expected to make great fortunes by producing raw silk and wines. Almost without exception, their plans came to naught. The settlers proved to be inefficient, save for a few bands that were not sent over by the trustees. Slaves were hired from the people of Carolina and later regular slavery was introduced, and the agricultural schemes of the founders entailed such losses that they were abandoned. The colony prospered after a fashion, but was so much exposed to Spanish attacks and so greatly handicapped by its start that it did not develop at all rapidly.

Georgia (1731–1752).

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, Nos. 39–44.

Greene, *Provincial America*, 249–269.

claimed that while these Indians might be subjects of England, the territory of the Iroquois and of their tributary tribes was still free. England, however, claimed territorial as well as personal dominion.

The colonies under the first Hanoverians.

87. **The English Colonists and their Governors.** — Meanwhile the older English colonies were growing more rapidly than at any previous time. Large numbers of immigrants, most of them of other nationalities than English, flocked to America. These new settlers, with the more adventurous of the native-born inhabitants, pressed into the interior. Commerce and industry were expanding with considerable rapidity, notwithstanding the laws which were made by the English government to control these occupations, for these laws were not enforced.[1] Under the first two Hanoverians the colonial governments were allowed by the authorities in England to do much as they pleased, and they pleased to run their own affairs. The principal obstacle in the way of their complete management of American affairs they found in the governors who were sent over to look after the interests of the crown, in the royal colonies, or of the proprietors, in the proprietary colonies. These governors were intrusted with powers so important that they often controlled the situation theoretically. But custom frequently prevented them from exercising these powers fully. There were often important men or interests to be consulted and a new governor was obliged to use his powers with caution. If, as was often the case, he was a pleasure-loving court favorite, he followed the line of least resistance, and yielded to the assembly (the lower house of the legislature, which was always elected by the people) most of its demands as the price of peace. By using this method, which was sneeringly called a process of "bargain and sale," the assemblies in most of the colonies paid the governors' salaries and allowed them to perform their duties unhampered only when the governors in turn kept their hands off the business of the assemblies. These contests between the governors and the assemblies were the most marked characteristic of English colonial history during the first half of the eighteenth century. The almost unvarying success of the assemblies left the colonies to a large extent

Victories of the assemblies over the governors.

Thwaites, *The Colonies*, §§ 123–126.

Greene, *Provincial America*, 194–200.

[1] See § 121.

self-governing and did much to give the colonial leaders confidence in their ability to protect themselves from interference on the part of the home government or its representatives.

Organization of the government.

**88. Government of the French Colonies.** — The French colonies were governed very differently. No representative of the people had a share in making the laws. The king appointed directly all of the chief colonial officials. There was a *governor* who had control of military affairs, who executed the laws, who, in fact, had more influence than any one else in making the laws. These governors held office as a rule for a longer time than the governors in the English colonies and exercised powers that were immeasurably greater. But every governor had at his elbow an official called an "*intendant*," who was appointed by the king to spy upon the governor and report to the king what the governor did. Naturally he acted as a check on that official, but this dual system resulted in constant misunderstandings and bickerings. The real legislative head of the French colonies was a superior *council* appointed by the king. This council made laws, established courts, and formed a final court of appeal.

Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 169–173.

Thwaites, *France in America*, 128–135.

Such an absolute government of council, governor, and intendant made it possible for the French colonies to concentrate all their strength in carrying on war and seizing territory, much to their advantage. But the French rule was not fitted to develop strong, populous, self-reliant colonies. The government established a paternalism which sought to aid the colonies, but which succeeded only in weakening them. Commercial monopolies interfered with individual enterprise, immigration was restricted by the ardor of the Jesuit priests who kept out Protestant settlers, while feudal estates and privileges placed barriers in the way of social progress. For the protection of the fine territorial domain that she had secured, France at the middle of the eighteenth century could muster only eighty thousand inhabitants, while the rival British possessions boasted

Results of the French colonial policy.

Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 314–318.

Thwaites, *France in America*, 132–142.

nearly a million and a quarter. Little wonder that the court of that pleasure-loving monarch, Louis XV, with its short-sighted, blundering policy in Europe, Asia, and America, was unable to retain its hold in America!

War of the Austrian Succession (1744-1748).

Fiske, *New France and New England*, 249-256.

89. **Preparation for the Final Conflict.** — Great Britain and Spain had been at war for several years before the war of the Austrian succession, which involved nearly every country of Europe, spread to America in 1744. Only one important military event distinguished this third intercolonial war. The great fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island, which commanded the entrance to the St. Lawrence and threatened the English colonies of Newfoundland and Acadia, was reduced by William Pepperell and a force of New England farmers and fishermen almost unaided by the British navy. Much to the indignation of the colonists, this advantage was lost by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), since Louisburg was returned to the French in exchange for Dutch fortresses that they gave up.

French forts in the West.

Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 156-264, 297-300.

Parkman, *Half Century*, I, 63-77.

As this treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was considered by all parties a mere truce — a temporary lull in the storm — each side was busy making preparations for the real struggle to follow. France had already made considerable progress in the occupation of the West, having gained control of the principal avenues of communication by establishing forts at strategic points like Frontenac, Detroit, Sault Ste. Marie, and Chartres before 1720. When the English sought to secure a large share of the fur trade by building a trading post at Oswego in 1722, the French tried by establishing forts at Crown Point and Niagara to gain control of Lake Champlain and to recover the trade they had lost on Lake Ontario. At the close of the third intercolonial war, the French governor of Canada strengthened the chain of forts from Montreal to New Orleans, and in order to gain the goodwill of the western Indians by impressing them with the power of the French, he buried leaden plates inscribed with the arms of France and the claim that France was the sole owner of the country west of the mountains.

## Expulsion of the French (1754–1763)

French forts and Virginia land grants.

**90. The Struggle for the Upper Ohio Valley.** — In 1753 the French extended their system of forts to the valley of the Allegheny River, with the intention of keeping the English from the upper Ohio region. The English had already secured from the Iroquois a claim to this territory, but the first real interest in the country beyond the mountains was developed in Virginia, which claimed that section as a part of the land grant in her charter of 1609 (§ 35). Grants of the land had been made to companies by Virginia before 1750, and, when the French began building forts south of Lake Erie, Deputy Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia sent George Washington, then a stalwart youth of twenty-one, to warn the French that they were trespassers.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, Nos. 123–124.

Collision between the French and Washington.

Acting on Washington's report, a force was dispatched the next spring (1754), to occupy the rocky promontory at the junction of the Allegheny and the Monongahela Rivers, which was the real "gateway of the West." Before their arrival the French descended the Allegheny in force, drove away the traders who had a post at that point, and built a strong fort that they called Duquesne. A scouting party from this fort was sent to watch the movements of the vanguard of the Virginia detachment under Washington and was attacked by him, all of the Frenchmen being killed or captured. Of course this was an act of war, but both France and England desired to maintain peace as long as possible, and it was two years before war was declared, although waged during the interval in America and India. After the first skirmish Washington was obliged to fall back, but later was himself captured with all of his troops by a French force much larger than his own.

Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 333–337.

Fiske, *New France and New England*, 269–276.

Thwaites, *France in America*, 157–168.

Complications of European politics.

**91. The Situation in America and in Europe.** — That an actual battle between armed forces of the two countries did not lead at once to a break in their friendly relations was due to the state of European politics. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle had seated Maria Theresa firmly upon the

Hassall, *Balance of Power*, 224–240.

throne of Austria, after nearly a decade of fighting. So anxious was the whole of Europe for a respite, that not even the struggles between France and England in India, which had continued after war ceased in Europe, proved sufficient cause for an open renewal of hostilities. But when affairs reached a crisis in India; when Austria and France united for the dismemberment of Prussia, with whom England was in sympathy; when French and English vessels were scouring the seas for the merchantmen of the other; and when a half-dozen armies were actually fighting for America, the facts could no longer be ignored, and war was declared (1756). This "Seven Years' War," as it is called in European history, exerted a greater influence on the destinies of both France and England than almost any other war in their history. The phase of it in which we are most interested, the contest in America, best known as the "Old French and Indian War," decided the future of half a continent.

Comparison of the combatants in America.

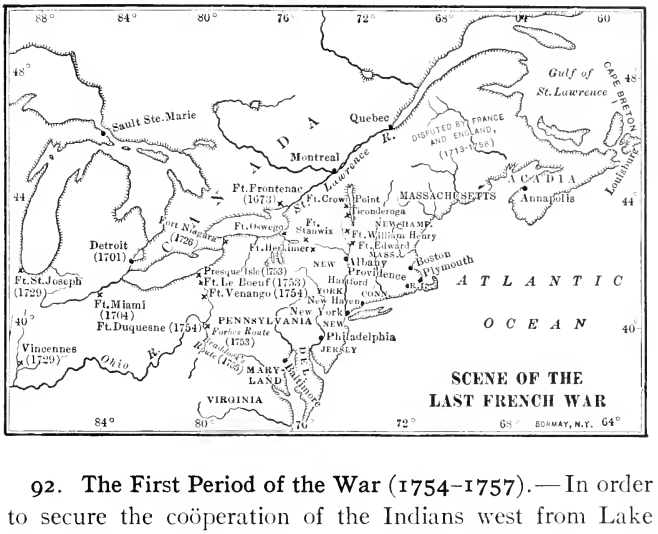
Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 314–328.

For the first time both England and France were almost as much interested in the war outside of Europe as in the war on the continent, and each gave to her colonies all the forces that she could spare. In America the resources of the contestants were far from equal. The population of the English colonies was nearly fifteen times as large as that of the French provinces. On the other hand there were two highly centralized French provinces, in which a semi-military government could bring every able-bodied man into the field at short notice, and fourteen disconnected British colonies more or less jealous of one another, and practically without experience in acting together. Nothing but a great common danger could make the English colonies forget their differences, and the distrust shown by the assemblies toward their governors made them unwilling to vote men and supplies for an army which might be directed by the governors.

Avenues of English attack.

As the strength of the French was greatly disproportionate to the territory that they held, it was natural for them to await the attack of the English. The English in the mean-

time prepared for invasion along four principal avenues. First, they followed the seacoast and the St. Lawrence, using Boston and Halifax as the bases of operations. Then came the Champlain route, and the one through the Mohawk valley and Lake Ontario. Last of all was that leading straight to the ground especially in dispute by way of Fort Duquesne.




**92. The First Period of the War (1754–1757).**—In order to secure the coöperation of the Indians west from Lake Champlain, the French had made repeated efforts to gain the friendship of the various tribes. So great was their success that even the Six Nations,[1] which had remained neutral during the third intercolonial war, were brought under French influence. To counteract this impending danger, a congress was called to meet at Albany, New York (1754), for the purpose of renewing treaties with the Iroquois. The Six Nations were persuaded easily not to cast in their lot with the French in the conflict that had begun already, but the congress proceeded to adopt a remarkable plan of military union for the colonies, which had

The Iroquois and the Albany Congress (1754).

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, No. 125.

Thwaites, *France in America*, 168–172.

[1] The Tuscaroras had joined the Five Nations in 1715.

Larned (ed.), *Ready Ref.*, V, 3175–3178.

been proposed by Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania. It contemplated a president general appointed by the English king, who was to be commander in chief of the colonial army, and an assembly which was to have charge of all financial matters. This plan was disapproved in England as too democratic, and in the colonies because it centered too much power in the hands of a royal representative.

French victories (1755–1757).

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, Nos. 126–127.

Parkman, *Struggle for a Continent*, 343–355.

The first real campaign of the war was that of Braddock, who attempted with a force of provincials and regulars to capture Fort Duquesne (1755). His overwhelming defeat was all the more humiliating because of the numerical inferiority of the French and Indians. The same year occurred the expulsion of the Acadians, a cruel act, justified on the ground of political and military necessity. While the English commanders remained inactive the next two years or wasted their time in vain demonstrations against the great fortress of Louisburg, the French general, Montcalm, gained absolute control of Lakes Ontario and Champlain. The first period of the war had revealed the utter incapacity of most of the English commanders, while an almost uninterrupted series of French victories had extended still further the limits of the vast territory claimed by France.

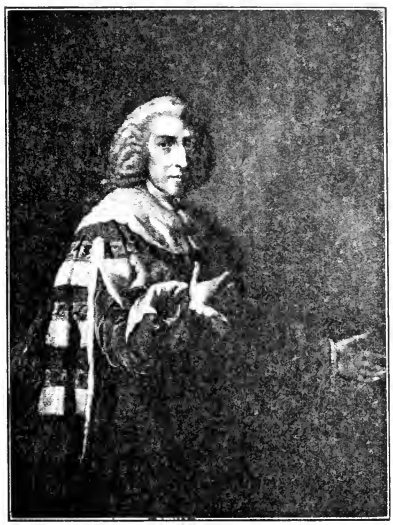
Campaigns of 1758.

**93. The Second Period of the War (1758–1760).**—When William Pitt became prime minister of England (1757) the tide turned. He immediately formed plans for the active prosecution of the war by sending to America a still larger number of troops, by arousing the colonists to active cooperation with the regular army, and by appointing competent commanders. An expedition was fitted out to follow each route. Louisburg, Frontenac, and Fort Duquesne fell into the hands of the English, the first after a siege that was severe though short. The French line would have been cut up even more had it not been for the remoteness of Niagara and the presence of a skillful leader, Marquis de Montcalm, at Ticonderoga. With his departure to defend

Quebec the next season (1759), Lake Champlain too became English.

The great expedition of the year, and in fact of the war, was that against the city of Quebec. Occupying commanding heights that were directly approachable from one side only, with mighty fortifications against which artillery thundered in vain, defended by a large army under the command of the ablest French general, Quebec seemed impregnable. For the capture of the city a fleet and an army were dispatched early in 1759 under James Wolfe, whose diseased frame housed an indomitable spirit. After months of fruitless siege Wolfe was able to lead one half of his army by night to the plains of Abraham on the unprotected side of the city. Montcalm gave battle, in which both commanders were killed, and a few days later the city surrendered. This glorious victory left to the French only Montreal, which was captured the next year, and the territory in the West. It really settled the fate of the French empire on the continent of North America. John Fiske believed that "the triumph of Wolfe marks the greatest turning point as yet discernible in modern history."

Capture of Quebec (1759).



WILLIAM PITT

Fiske, *New France and New England*, 349–359.

**94. The Peace of Paris (1763).** — For nearly three years after war ceased in America, the two countries continued the great conflict elsewhere. During this interval Spain formed an alliance with France and assisted her in

The situation in 1762.

the contest. But England continued to gain victories. She became mistress of the important island of Guadaloupe, as well as most of the other French possessions in the West Indies. Havana and part of Florida had fallen into her hands. As she had been the acknowledged ruler of India after the battle of Plassey (1757), she was not to be satisfied with the territory for which she had fought, not even when Canada was included. The war had proved a colonial death struggle, from which France emerged with scarcely a trace of the magnificent possessions she had claimed at the beginning.

Provisions of the Treaty of Paris (1763).

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 54.

Thwaites, *France in America*, 266–279.

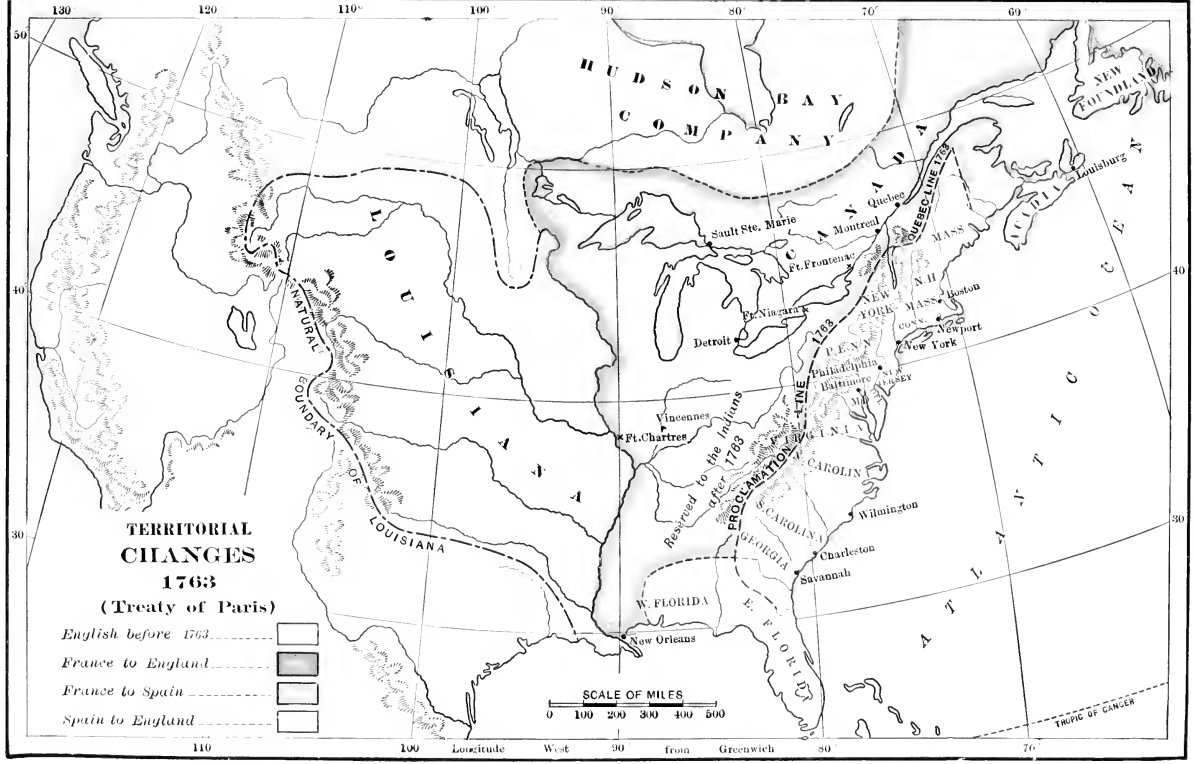
In the Treaty of Paris (1763) all of the claims of France to the territory east of the Mississippi, except the little island on which New Orleans stands, were transferred to England.[1] Only two little islets south of Newfoundland were kept for fishing stations, and they were never to be fortified. England's territory was rounded out by the exchange of Havana for the Spanish Floridas. Spain had already been compensated for her losses when France gave her the isle of Orleans and all Louisiana west of the Mississippi River.

Territory west of the Alleghany mountains.

MacDonald, *Charters*, No. 55.

Many of the Indian tribes of the West protested against the transfer of their territory to English rule and united under Pontiac in one of the greatest Indian uprisings in history. Attacks were made on all the western forts and settlements from the Virginia frontier to the Great Lakes. As the colonial assemblies neglected or refused to furnish troops, regulars were sent to relieve the besieged garrisons, but the insurrection was not broken completely until 1765. Meanwhile, in order to appease the western Indians, George III issued a proclamation (1763) reserving the lands beyond the Alleghanies for the Indians and prohibiting the colonies from making grants of lands or settlements in that region.

[1] France was allowed to retain either Guadaloupe or Canada. While Canada was poor and had been a source of continual expense, Guadaloupe was rich and had given substantial aid to the French treasury. So the chance of future dominion was sacrificed to present gain.


TERRITORIAL
CHANGES
1763
(Treaty of Paris)
English before 1763
France to England
France to Spain
Spain to England
HUDSON BAY COMPANY
NEW FOUNDLAND
CANADA
LOUISIANA
NATURAL BOUNDARY OF LOUISIANA
Sault Ste. Marie
Quebec
Montreal
Ft. Frontenac
Louisburg
QUEBEC LINE 1763
MASS
Ft. Niagara
Detroit
N. H
Boston
NEW YORK
CONN
Newport
New York
1763
PENN
Philadelphia
Baltimore
N. JERSEY
Vincennes
Ft. Chartres
PROCLAMATION LINE
Restried to the Indians after 1763
VIRGINIA
N. CAROLINA
Wilmington
S. CAROLINA
GEORGIA
Charleston
Savannah
W. FLORIDA
E. FLORIDA
New Orleans
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
TROPIC OF CANCER
130
120
110
100
90
80
70
60
50
40
30
Longitude West from Greenwich

**95. Summary.** — The French were not good colonizers and were hampered by the paternal attitude of their home government. Three colonies were founded in North America: Acadia south of the St. Lawrence, New France or Canada in the St. Lawrence basin, and Louisiana in the lower Mississippi basin. French explorers, traders, and priests penetrated the interior, but France planted no colonies inland. She maintained a hold on the interior, however, by connecting Canada with Louisiana by a chain of forts at strategic points. Her great rival meanwhile was neglecting the eleven colonies which had been planted on the Atlantic coast during the seventeenth century. But the colonies prospered, large numbers of immigrants being received from Ireland, Scotland, France, and Germany as well as England. Their gain during the three quarters of a century following the revolution of 1688 was not only in population, commerce, and wealth, but in culture, self-reliance, and a greater desire for self-government.

Growth of French and English colonies.

With the expulsion of James II from England in 1689 began the second "hundred years' war" between France and Great Britain. The first four conflicts in this series, lasting until 1763, involved the colonies of these nations in America, and were accompanied by all the horrors of border Indian warfare. The first substantial gain was secured in the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) by which England gained control of all Newfoundland, the territory drained into Hudson Bay, and Acadia with its ancient limits. The last war, begun in 1754, was a contest at the beginning for the control of the upper Ohio valley, but, when Pitt became prime minister in England, it became a struggle for supremacy in America which ended in the capture of Louisburg, Quebec, and all other important French strongholds. At the close of the war France transferred her territory west of the Mississippi to her ally, Spain, and surrendered to the English Canada and the eastern Mississippi basin. England rounded out her possessions by acquiring from Spain both Floridas.

Intercolonial wars (1689–1763).

**TOPICS**

1. CHAMPLAIN: Fiske, "New England and New France," pp. 39–42, 58–71, 80–93; Parkman, "Struggle for a Continent," pp. 83–124; Winsor (ed.), "America," V, pp. 103–130.

2. CAPTURE OF QUEBEC (1759): Thwaites, "France in America," pp. 239–254; Sloane, "French War and Revolution," pp. 78–98; Parkman, "Struggle for a Continent," pp. 382–446.

**STUDIES**

1. France under Henry IV. (Wakeman, "Ascendency of France," pp. 14–38.)

2. French search for a western passage. (Parkman, "Struggle for a Continent," pp. 107–113.)

3. Iroquois and the French.

4. Character of La Salle. (Parkman, "Struggle for a Continent," pp. 220–222.)

5. Early Indian attacks during the second intercolonial war. (Drake, "Border Wars of New England," 153–186.)

6. Acadia after 1713. (Parkman, "Montcalm and Wolfe," I, 90–127.)

7. How the people controlled their governors. (Fisher, "True American Revolution," pp. 21–32.)

8. England and France in the eighteenth century. (Parkman, "Struggle for a Continent," pp. 301–313.)

9. Early colonial plans of union. ("American History Leaflets," No. 14.)

10. The contest over India. (Woodward, "Expansion of the British Empire," pp. 196–205.)

11. Montcalm. (Parkman, "Montcalm and Wolfe," I, pp. 356–380.)

**QUESTIONS**

1. Show how political changes in France influenced the course of events in the French colonies. Was the colonial policy of France wise? (Consider political, commercial, and religious regulations.)

2. Make an outline on the French in America, giving (*a*) method used to gain possession of the country, (*b*) three classes that extended French sway, (*c*) extent of French possessions (1650, 1710, 1755), (*d*) causes of French success, (*e*) causes of French failure.

3. Make a table showing the chief events during the three periods, 1600–1660, 1660–1700, 1700–1763, under the following heads: England, New England, middle colonies, southern colonies, the French and English, events of continental Europe. (Keep events of the same date on same horizontal line.)

4. Compare the land claims of the two countries to the Ohio valley (1754). What had each done to explore or occupy that region before that date.

5. To what extent did the colonial wars create a spirit of unity among the colonies? Name several reasons why Franklin's plan of unity met with disapproval.

6. Was the expulsion of the Acadians necessary? Give reasons for your answer. Could it have been accomplished in a different way?

7. Why might Fiske have believed that "the triumph of Wolfe marks the greatest turning point as yet discernible in modern history"?

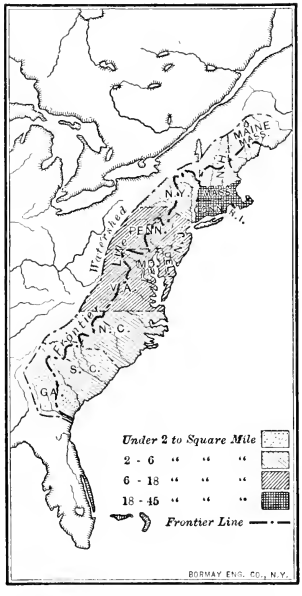
# CHAPTER VI

## COLONIAL CONDITIONS (1750)

### Population and Society

Population of the sections.

**96. Number of the People.** — At the middle of the eighteenth century the population of the thirteen colonies that afterward united to form the United States was probably less than a million and a quarter, distributed fairly evenly between the three sections, New England, the Middle colonies, and the South. The most populous of all the colonies was Virginia, with Massachusetts and Pennsylvania occupying second and third places.




Density of Population (1750)

Race elements of the population.

Thwaites, *Colonies*, 97, 180–181, 220–222.

With the exception of about three hundred thousand negroes all of the inhabitants were white, but perhaps not more than three fourths of these were of English descent. The New England colonies were settled almost exclusively by English Puritans and Virginia had few white inhabitants in the eastern part who were not English. A large percentage were of that sturdy yeoman stock which has been the backbone of the English race for several centuries. A few came from the higher social ranks but some were the dregs of English society. Among the non-English peoples,

Greene, *Provincial America*, 228–236.

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 66, 227–229, 406–409.

the Scotch-Irish predominated, large numbers of that intense and intelligent race having emigrated from the north of Ireland during the first half of the eighteenth century. Most of these Scotch-Irish settled in the interior, along the foothills of Pennsylvania and the Carolinas particularly. Aside from the English Puritans, this race has furnished the largest number and most influential of our public men. Many Huguenot families emigrated to America after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685. A larger proportion of these desirable citizens settled in South Carolina than in any other colony. In the middle colonies there was a larger number of foreigners than elsewhere, for not only were the Scotch and French numerous in that section, but there were also the original Dutch and Swedish settlers, besides a great number of German settlers who are known best as "Pennsylvania Dutch." Probably one quarter of all the colonists were of nationalities other than English.

Social classes.

**97. Classes of Society.** — In all the colonies there was a marked distinction between the social classes, least pronounced in Pennsylvania and New England, most noticeable in South Carolina. In the North, the aristocracy was one based to a great extent on family, but men often attained social standing by exceptional learning or unusual business success. In the South, family and the possession of landed estates counted for most. The middle class of independent farmers or merchants was largest in New England, for in that section there were few dependents and practically no slaves. In Pennsylvania also the middle class was very numerous, although there was the greatest difference between the prosperous farmer of the eastern valleys and the rough ignorant frontiersman of the interior. In most of the other colonies the middle class was comparatively small.

Thwaites, *Colonies*, §§ 42, 93.

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 71–73, 327–329, 445–448.

Character of the people.

As a rule these people of the colonies were rough, kind-hearted, industrious, and frugal. Their manners were often crude, and their ideas on social and political subjects undeveloped, but their courage was never open to question, and their love of liberty unquenchable. Although they

Wilson, *Washington*.

drank overmuch and often engaged in pastimes that do not appeal to a more highly organized people, they rarely had distorted views of right and wrong.

Two kinds of indented servants.

**98. Indented Servants.** — There existed in all of the English provinces a class of white servants who were bound to their masters for a term of years. Of these there were two distinct kinds — one consisting of convicts who were sent to America to serve their sentences, and the other "indented" servants who bound themselves to work for a period of five years, usually, in payment of their passage to the new world. Many of those belonging to the second class were worthy, hardworking, but unfortunate individuals who secured farms of their own after the expiration of their terms of service, and became valuable citizens. The majority of the "indented" servants, however, were indolent and shiftless, so that an immense number of ne'er-do-wells were imposed on the colonies, especially from New York to North Carolina. Still more burdensome were the released convicts whose lawlessness and viciousness were a menace to the peace and order of the colonies.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 290–293.

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 69–71, 125–126.

Eggleston, in *Century*, XXVIII (1884), 853–856.

Treatment of indented servants.

During the terms of service these servants were controlled absolutely and often treated harshly by their masters. Attempts to escape were punished severely, and added to the time of servitude. In some colonies a second attempt was punishable by branding on the cheek and a third attempt by death if desired by the master. Frequently the condition of these servants was much better than might be expected, comparing favorably with that of farm hands in England. Sometimes convicts who were political exiles occupied clerical or business positions of importance.

Eggleston, in *Century*, XXVIII (1884), 856–858.

Blacks in the North and the South.

**99. Slavery.** — African slavery existed in New Netherland and in the South almost from the beginning. It never attained prominence in New England, for the occupations of the people and later a growing sentiment against human bondage prevented its development. The few slaves, as in most of the other northern colonies, were house servants who were treated usually with a great deal of consideration.

From Pennsylvania south, the blacks were, of course, very much more numerous, in Virginia nearly equaling the whites in number, and in South Carolina forming about three fifths of the population. All of the menial domestic duties were performed by slaves, but in Maryland and Virginia most of the blacks were employed as field hands on the large tobacco plantations, while in the extreme South the work in the rice fields was done by bands of fierce, ignorant slaves, under cruel overseers.

Coman, *Industrial Hist.*, 43–45.

During the seventeenth century white servants were preferred to African slaves, in almost all of the colonies, and the laws regarding slaves were comparatively lenient. Later, with the development of slavery and attempted insurrections, laws of great severity were passed. Slaves were not allowed to leave their plantations without permission and might be put to death if they attempted to escape or injured their masters. Meetings of slaves were forbidden and their quarters were searched frequently for hidden arms. Intermarriage between whites and blacks was forbidden under very heavy penalties. Many legal obstacles were placed in the way of emancipation. These laws were not enforced in Maryland and Virginia, for most of the blacks in those colonies were native born, living their entire lives on a single plantation, and consequently known personally to the master and mistress. As a rule they were well fed, well clothed, and treated humanely.

Laws regarding slaves.

Eggleston, in *Century*, XXVIII (1884), 861–865.

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 67–69.

In the South, on the contrary, there was little difference between the letter and the spirit of the law. Many of the blacks were barbarous Africans, trapped by slave dealers and brought to America by Spanish or New England slave traders. On the rice or indigo plantations little attempt was made to civilize them. Slaves were cheap and their labor so profitable that it was more economical to work them hard and buy new slaves when they were worn out than to spare them. Small wonder was it that the badly treated blacks hated their masters and overseers and were kept in subjection by an iron rule.

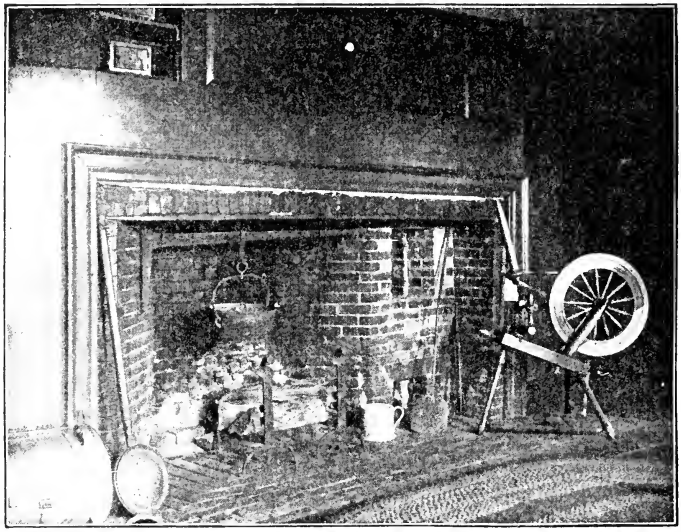
Enforcement of slave laws in the extreme South.

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 181–183.

The cities.

Eggleston, in *Century*, XXIX (1885), 873–881.

**100. Colonial Life.** — Although nearly all of the people lived within one hundred miles of the seacoast, there were only four places that deserved to be called cities — Boston, Philadelphia, New York, and Charleston — and comparatively few large towns. Boston and New York were the centers of a thriving commerce. In Charleston lived most of the planters of South Carolina who found life unendurable on the hot, swampy plantations. These cities and some of the towns were compact little burgs, not overclean, with narrow winding streets — except Philadelphia — numerous small shops, and well-built houses usually of brick and stone. Few of the inhabitants were wealthy, but the majority were in fair circumstances. Few of the streets were patrolled or lighted at night, there was no uniform water supply or proper sanitation. Most of the houses had several balconies, and were backed if not surrounded by attractive gardens. Some of them were comfortably furnished with chairs, tables, and draperies purchased abroad.



A Colonial Kitchen

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 103, 237–240, 258–262, 333–337, 451–461.

In the country the log cabins which had been the rule everywhere in the early days were to be found only on the frontier or in the poorer districts. With the advent of the sawmill, they had been replaced by frame houses of several rooms which were rude structures tied together with wooden pins, for iron was scarce. The doors were hung on leather hinges and fortunate indeed was the farmer who substituted glass brought from England for the oiled paper which was

Life in the country.

Earle, *Home Life in Colonial Days*, 4–16, 22–27, 52–75.

A Colonial Hall

almost universal outside of the towns. In most of the farmhouses the spacious kitchen was the most attractive room. At one end was a great fireplace with large pots and kettles suspended from a horizontal rod — for stoves were practically unknown in 1750. There was a large dining-table and a few rude chairs or benches. Around the glowing fire the family gathered at night, and the kitchen was frequently the scene of jolly neighborhood gatherings. The loneliness of country life was relieved by occasional house raisings and by frequent quilting bees and corn huskings.

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 76–82, 248–252, 329–331, 448–451.

In a few districts in rural New England, along the Hudson, and from the Delaware to the Carolina border, the country homes of the landed gentry were very fine examples

Country homes of the gentry.

of the beautiful type of architecture which we call colonial. These were seen at their best on the broad tobacco plantations of Virginia. There the spacious "halls," ever open to visitors, with the numerous barns and other farm buildings and rows of slave cabins, formed miniature colonies in themselves.

## Occupations

Difficulties in preparing the land.

Winsor (ed.), *America*, IV, Intro.

**101. Agriculture.** — Most of the colonists depended on agriculture for their support. At first each colony sought to raise simply the necessaries of life — a supply of food which would keep them from starving. Conditions were not especially favorable for agriculture at the beginning, because of the dense forests. The task of clearing the land was so arduous that the early settlers contented themselves with the Indian method of girdling the trees so that they died. Corn and pumpkins were then planted among the lifeless trunks. In New England, further difficulties were added by the stones with which the prehistoric glaciers had sown the land. The fight with the wilderness was long and intense.

Agricultural products and exports.

Coman, *Industrial Hist.*, 47–60.

Eggleston, in *Century*, XXVII (1884), 435–442.

In the northern colonies all of the farms were small, as the narrow valleys precluded cultivation on a large scale. Great care was necessary to insure even moderate crops, except in the valley of the Connecticut. There were very few communities in New England that raised articles for export. In the middle section a surplus supply of wheat was grown, so that wheat and flour were shipped to the West Indies and Europe. In Maryland and Virginia agriculture absorbed the entire attention of the people. This was due to the profitableness of the tobacco industry, for at different times the planters neglected food supplies in their mad desire to gain wealth by raising tobacco to be sold abroad. It was necessary to make laws compelling every planter to devote a certain area to corn. Even with this restraint, the over-production of tobacco caused a great decline in the price. After the passage of the Navigation Act, which

forbade the sending of tobacco to other countries than England, the price became still lower, but the raising of tobacco remained the chief source of wealth in those colonies until the revolution. South Carolina made a specialty of rice during the eighteenth century, and indigo was produced in large quantities after 1745. Some cotton also was grown in the low lands along the coast.

Restrictions on colonial trade

**102. Commerce and Shipping.** — The colonies were dependent on England for many manufactured articles. At the beginning it was impossible to produce these things in America, and after 1660 the home government aimed to prohibit manufacturing in the colonies, at the same time compelling the colonists to purchase everything they needed from England rather than from her continental rivals. Since the commercial laws of England were not enforced strictly, the colonies enjoyed a large though legally forbidden trade with the West Indian possessions of France and Spain and with Holland, France, and other European countries.[1]

Coman, *Industrial Hist.*, 77–83.

General exports and imports.

From the northern ports a comparatively large trade was carried on, especially with England and the British West Indies. It is estimated that salted cod and mackerel worth £250,000 were exported annually from New England. Large quantities of lumber and dried fish were sent to the West Indies every year, where they were exchanged for molasses, from which was distilled rum that was in turn exported. Nevertheless, the imports of New England were four times as great as its exports. In Virginia and North Carolina, owing to the lack of towns and harbors, the skippers of the small sailing vessels ascended the numerous rivers of those colonies, exchanging their fine cloths and other articles at each plantation for the products of the country.

Coman, *Industrial Hist.*, 75–77.

Ship building and shipping.

A large part of the shipping was in the hands of New Englanders, since the colonists were allowed by the navigation acts to trade on the same terms as native-born Englishmen. Shipbuilding had become an important indus-

[1] On the laws of trade, see §§ 119–121.

Wright, *Industrial Evolution of U. S.*, 28–42.

try in the northern colonies, as lumber was cheap, and the vessels built in the New England shipyards were superior to those constructed in Europe. The fisheries formed a training school of the best kind for a race of hardy, daring sailors who gained a reputation in later naval wars. Probably one half of the population in New England depended on the sea for a living.

Piracy.

Commerce in colonial times was attended by dangers that no longer exist. There was always risk of capture by privateers of unfriendly nations. Pirates were numerous, successful, and often unpunished. At one time North Carolina harbored a great many, at another New York and Newport gained an unpleasant reputation for giving them aid. The government sought to suppress piracy, sending out privateers to capture them. Among those commissioned to destroy pirate ships was the notorious Captain Kidd, who turned pirate as soon as he was out of sight of land, but afterward suffered death for his crimes. In spite of harsh measures, regular commerce was not free from perils of this nature until comparatively late in the eighteenth century, and many passengers and crews were obliged to "walk the plank."

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, No. 85.

Colonial manufactures.

**103. Industry and Labor.** — The colonies were in no true sense manufacturing communities. A new country is not well adapted for those industries which require a large supply of raw materials and an abundance of labor. Because of the lack of laborers and the higher wages paid in America, it was cheaper to ship the raw materials to England and purchase the finished products from the mother country. Yet there was a large amount of manufacturing done in the colonies on a small scale. Practically all of the household furniture was made at home. Almost every family had its spinning wheel and hand loom. Few of the colonists used anything but the coarse "linen" made from the hemp and flax that they prepared, or dressed in anything but homespun woolen clothes, but the wealthier farmers or merchants imported their broadcloth and their

Coman, *Industrial Hist.*, 62, 72.

hats. The building of ships was undoubtedly the foremost industry of the colonies, three hundred and eighty-nine being constructed in a single year.[1] Many of these were built for English owners, or were sold abroad later with their cargoes.

Condition of labor.

Although the hours of labor were very long, and the wages paid, two or three shillings a day for skilled labor, seem ridiculously small, the laborer in the colonies was undoubtedly better paid and better treated than in any part of Europe. The agricultural laborer was free to sell his labor to the one who would pay the most for it, instead of being tied to a certain farm, as in most countries across the Atlantic. The man who wished to learn a trade served a shorter apprenticeship, and was freer in every way than a fellow workman in England. There were numerous attempts during colonial times to regulate the price of wages or of commodities, in the interest usually of those wealthier classes which controlled the government, but these proved ineffective.

Wright, *Industrial Evolution*, 104–114.

Commodities as money.

**104. Colonial Currency.** — Most of the colonial business consisted simply in the exchange of one commodity for another. Corn, sheep, and cattle were the ordinary media of exchange in several colonies, the value of a sheep in shillings often being designated by law. This enabled debtors to pay their creditors in the poorest animals they owned. In Virginia and Maryland, tobacco was used as currency, articles being purchased and wages paid in tobacco.

Colonial coins.

As the people bought abroad more than they were able to sell it was impossible to secure or retain any large quantity of gold or silver. Most of the silver coins in circulation were dollars or smaller coins bearing a Spanish stamp, which had been obtained in trade with the West Indies. Almost every colony placed a different valuation on the Spanish dollar. In one colony it was considered worth five English shillings, in another six, in another eight. This naturally added confusion to the existing monetary difficulties.

Dewey, *Financial Hist. of U. S.*, 18–21.

[1] 1769, the only year for which full statistics are available.

Paper money.

Massachusetts was the first colony to attempt a solution of the currency problem by issuing paper money, but other colonies were not slow to follow this apparently easy method of paying private and public debts.[1] New York and Pennsylvania were more careful than the other colonies to provide a safe system of redeeming this paper, thus escaping the evils of depreciation and business depression that followed in the other colonies. In several colonies so-called "banks" were allowed to issue paper money, with results disastrous to all but the promoters of the scheme. A large part of the paper money in circulation became worth less than fifteen per cent of its face value. Interference with business was so great that at length parliament forbade (1751) the issue of paper money in New England and (1763) extended the prohibition to all of the colonies.

Coman, *Industrial Hist.*, 83–86.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, Nos. 88, 89.

Medicine, teaching, and the laws.

**105. The Professions.** — Very few persons were trained carefully for professional work. There were in 1750 but four colleges, most of which had been founded with an idea of fitting men for the ministry, but there were no theological seminaries or other professional schools. Consequently few physicians were to be found in the colonies, and of these the majority were men of little learning and less skill. Medicine as practiced was neither an art nor a science. Most of the teachers were either clergymen who gave part of their attention to private classes or incompetent individuals who had failed of success in other occupations. Although few men devoted their attention exclusively to the law, most educated men in the colonies were versed in the law and were prepared to argue cases if necessary. Pennsylvania alone furnished many able lawyers for other colonies, and the saying "as smart as a Philadelphia lawyer" became almost a proverb.

Greene, *Provincial America*, 317–319.

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 232, 236–237.

The ministry.

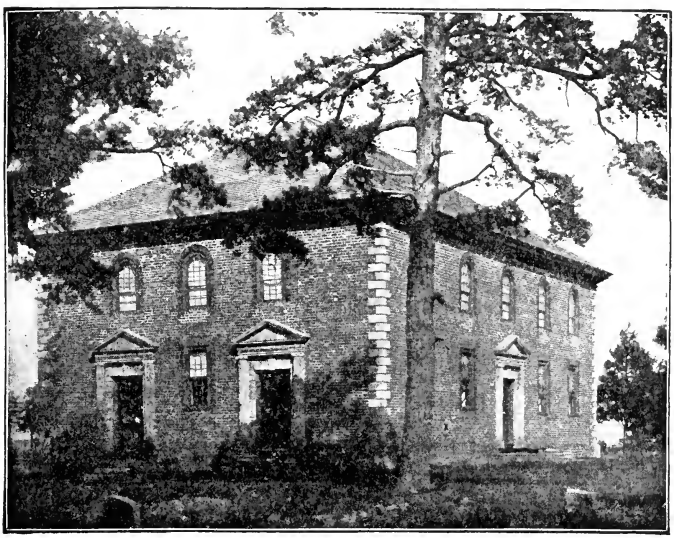
As more care was taken in preparing clergymen for their work than with the other professions, the Congregational colonial minister was the best educated, and probably the

[1] Before 1750, all of the colonies except Virginia and Georgia had issued bills of credit.

ablest man in his community. Looked up to for his character and learning, his influence enabled him to direct public opinion and settle private controversies. Many of the men appointed to livings in the Anglican church in America as in England were ignorant and corrupt, although the pastors of most independent churches and of regular parishes were men of high moral character. Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 423–425.

## Miscellaneous Conditions

**106. Colonial Churches.** — In most of the colonies there was a church supported at public expense, the union of Puritan churches.



A Colonial Church

church and state being common. In the New England colonies, except Rhode Island, the Congregational church had been established by law, all other denominations being excluded so far as possible from erecting buildings or even holding services. The Sabbath was observed very rigidly. No one traveled except to church, cooking was avoided, and the day given over to religious worship. Attendance at Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 425–434.

church service was compulsory, absence being punished by fine or the stocks. The services were always long and sometimes tedious, the hourglass being turned once during the "long" prayer, and usually twice during the sermon. The straight-backed uncushioned seats did not make it easier for the attendants to listen to the long, dry arguments or fierce declamation on future punishment, especially in winter when the meeting houses were unheated and even footstoves were considered effeminate. Puritan austerity could scarcely devise harsher means of mortifying the flesh, or better tests for self-control and endurance.

Anglicans and dissenters.

Andrews, *Col. Self-Gov't*, 304–311. Eggleston, in *Century*, XXVI (1883), 107–116.

South of New England the Anglican church had been established by law except in Pennsylvania, but church attendance was irregular and very little attempt was made to prevent dissenters from holding services of their own, although Catholics had churches in Pennsylvania only. In South Carolina, western Virginia, and Pennsylvania, the Presbyterians were numerous, while Rhode Island was controlled by the Baptists. In Rhode Island and Pennsylvania alone was there anything like real religious liberty.

Superstition in custom and law.

Lodge, *Eng. Colonies*, 253–254, 434–436.

**107. Superstition.** — Superstition was much more common in the seventeenth century than it is at present. This was due not simply to the greater ignorance of that day, but particularly to the survival of beliefs in signs and in the existence of evil spirits, witches, the evil eye, and other evidences of Satan's control of mortals. These beliefs were much less common in England than on the continent, and less common here than in England, although the non-English immigrants were very superstitious.[1] This superstition not only influenced the habits of the people, but also affected their laws.

Only once did superstitious fear lead to a wholesale punishment of witches. This was in the terrible witchcraft

[1] There are a few isolated instances of witches being put to death in the colonies before 1692 and after the witchcraft episode. In England and on the continent hundreds of thousands of witches were condemned to death, five hundred being burned in a single year in the city of Geneva.

delusion at Salem, Massachusetts, in 1692. The epidemic started when a number of "afflicted children," under the morbid training of some ignorant colored servants, accused eccentric people in the village of having bewitched them. A special court was organized for the trial of these cases, and persons were condemned on absurd testimony by conservative judges like Samuel Sewell. Excitement ran so high that many people accused their enemies of witchcraft, and no one could condemn the so-called trials without danger of being considered a witch.[1] After several women of unusual standing and virtue had been accused, the eyes of the people were opened; not, however, until a number of persons had been put to death.

The Salem witchcraft delusion.

Greene, *Provincial America*, 25–29.

Fiske, *New France and New England.*

PILLORY

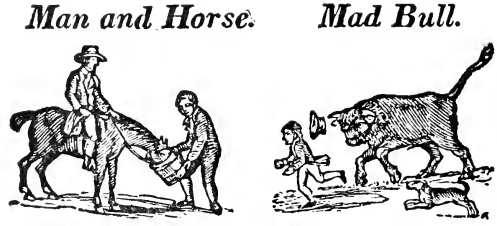
Methods of punishing offenders.

**108. Crime.** — The death penalty was used much more commonly in colonial times than at present.[2] In one colony, Pennsylvania, an attempt was made at the beginning to abolish it except for murder, but so great a departure from the customs of the times was abandoned after a few years. In Massa-

[1] A common way of deciding whether a woman was a witch was to cast her into the water. If she failed to sink, she was proved to be a witch.

[2] In England during the seventeenth century over one hundred crimes were punishable by death, the number increasing instead of diminishing during the eighteenth century. Frequently juries would acquit a man where the evidence showed him guilty, because they were unwilling to punish him by death for a minor offense.

chusetts, as we noticed (§ 73), Quakers who had been banished, but insisted on returning, were hanged. Yet executions were not common in colonial times, although so many offenses were punishable by death. In fact, in all well-settled communities, crime was by no means general. On many frontiers, and in a few older sections, there was considerable lawlessness. Imprisonment was




**Children should be careful not to provoke a bull, or get over into the field where one is. Alas! for that little boy that is running with all his might: see his hat flying behind him, and the mad bull close at his heels.**

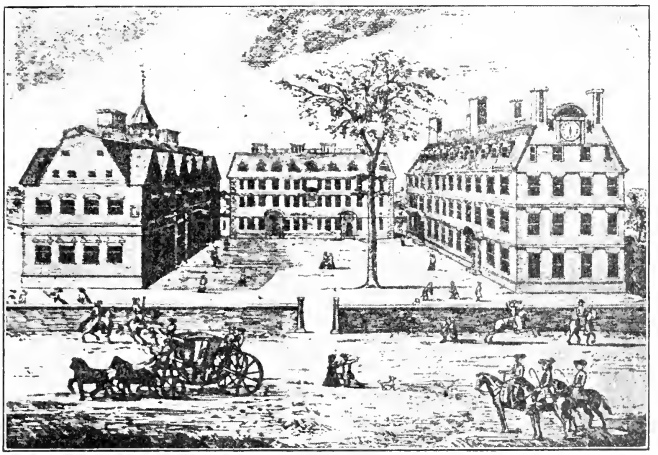
PAGE FROM AN OLD SCHOOL BOOK

used comparatively little as a punishment and the prisons were few in number and of a low order. In a conspicuous place in each town stood the whipping post, at which runaway slaves and criminals were lashed upon bare backs, and the stocks and pillory, in which offenders were locked for from one to four hours, the pain of their cramped position being augmented by the jeers of the spectators and the mud thrown by rowdies. Ducking stools were used occasionally for scolding wives even in the eighteenth century.

Grammar schools.

**109. Education.** — Outside of New England there was practically no public education, but east of the Hudson almost every town boasted a grammar school and practi-

cally every county had a Latin school which prepared students for college. To the Puritans, ability to read the Bible was a necessary part of the preparation for life. Except in parts of Rhode Island and on the Maine frontier no illiterate persons could be found in New England at the middle of the eighteenth century. The middle colonies paid comparatively little attention to education, although there were



First Harvard Hall Governor's Coach First Stoughton Massachusetts Hall

HARVARD COLLEGE

a few excellent private schools in New York, Philadelphia, and a few other large towns. South of Mason and Dixon's line education was systematically neglected. The oft-quoted comment of Governor Berkeley, in which he thanked God that there were no free schools or printing presses in Virginia, expressed the sentiment of the ruling class. Tutors were employed by some of the wealthier planters, and a few sons of prominent families in Virginia and South Carolina were sent to England for a college education.

Colonial colleges.

The most famous and the most influential of the early colleges was that established at Cambridge in 1636, and named after John Harvard; William and Mary college

Greene, *Provincial America*, 304–311.

was founded in Virginia, just before the close of the seventeenth century, and Yale College at New Haven in 1701. About the middle of the eighteenth century renewed interest in higher education led to the establishment of three colleges in the middle colonies: Kings (afterward Columbia) in New York, Princeton in New Jersey, and the University of Pennsylvania at Philadelphia. The latter, through the influence of Benjamin Franklin, developed rapidly, gaining a reputation for its standing and for the number of its courses and students within a few years.

Newspapers and the government.

110. **Newspapers.** — New England established its primacy in literary enterprise and attainments as in other lines, although it must be admitted that there was very little printing and less literature in the colonies before 1750. No newspaper was published in this country prior to 1704, when the *Boston News Letter* was started. At the middle of the century there were less than a dozen newspapers printed in all of the colonies, none being published daily. The attitude of the government toward the printers was by no means favorable. No books or pamphlets could be printed without a special license. When an attempt was made in Boston (1690) to start a newspaper called *Public Occurrences*, it was suppressed.

Wright, *Industrial Evolution*, 63–69.

The Zenger case (1736).

Real freedom of the press was not recognized until after the famous Zenger case had been decided in New York in 1736. Zenger was the publisher of the New York *Weekly Journal*. In a controversy between the governor of the colony, Cosby, and the president of the colonial council, Zenger supported the president, Van Dom, and was in consequence imprisoned and tried for libel. His lawyer, Andrew Hamilton of Philadelphia, argued that Zenger had published only facts and claimed that his client had the right to state the truth so long as it was not done maliciously. Influenced by his reasoning and eloquence, the jury found Zenger not guilty. This verdict had a wholesome influence not alone in New York, but throughout the colonies, in freeing the press from the tyranny of the government.

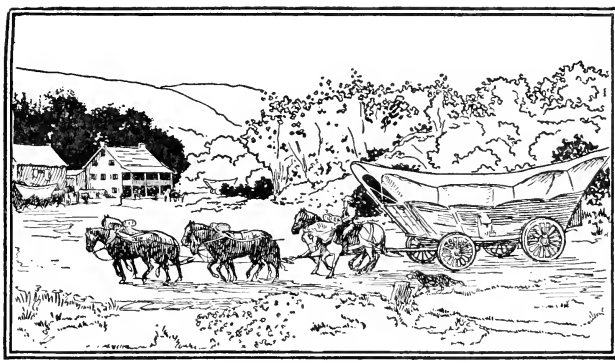
Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, No. 72.

**111. Travel.** — As most of the settlements were near the seacoast or on rivers, it was possible at first to travel from town to town or from plantation to plantation by water. Birch bark or "dugout" canoes were used on the rivers, sailing vessels on the ocean. As the colonies developed, travel by land became unavoidable. Until roads were constructed, Indian trails and bridle paths served the settlers, most of whom were obliged to journey on foot. Later the highways were improved, and horses were more numerous,

Travel in an early day.

Earle, *Home Life*, 325–332.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, No. 80.



Conestoga Wagon

so that comparatively few of the planters or their families ever traveled except by boat or on horseback. Roads were still few, however, and bridges almost unknown, the numerous rivers being forded at convenient points. Settlers in the North rode to church, usually with their wives on a pillion, or cushion, behind them.

The eighteenth century saw considerable improvement in the colonial highways and in the methods of travel. Roads connected all of the towns of importance but were few and poor in colonies with few villages. The use of two-wheeled chaises had replaced horseback riding to quite an extent in the North, although they were less common in Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas. Coaches were kept by most of the wealthy families, who put on considerable style with

Roads, coaches, and wagons, eighteenth century.

Eggleston, in *Century*, XXX (1885), 387–389.

Earle, *Home Life*, 335–344.

their liveried coachmen and outriders. The roads were primitive, however, and comparatively little used for the transportation of merchandise. Most articles were carried on packhorses, but in Pennsylvania commodious farm wagons, known as Conestoga wagons, were coming into extensive use.

Irregular stage lines.

Before 1750 there were no regular stage coaches in the colonies. Stages were run between certain towns regularly in the summer, and at irregular intervals throughout the year, connecting the larger cities. A journey by stage from Boston to New York took a week and was an exceedingly uncomfortable trip. From three in the morning until nine at night the lumbering vehicle jolted its passengers over the rough roads, leaving them a few hours' fitful slumber in the none too comfortable beds of the wayside taverns. The smaller streams were forded, the larger crossed by ferry, sometimes in detachments. When the stage stuck in the mud, the passengers were obliged to alight and put their shoulders to the wheel.

Mail service.

Earle, *Home Life*, 332–335.

There was no mail service worthy of the name before 1750. The mails were irregular, costly, and unsatisfactory. When a postrider had enough letters to justify a trip, he set out, carrying numerous parcels on his own account.[1] The mail was left at some public house to be hauled over by every comer until claimed and paid for by the person to whom it was addressed.

Democratic character of the local government.

Hart, *Formation of Union*, § 6.

Lee (ed.), *N. America*, VI, 66–72.

112. **Colonial Government.** — The governments of the American colonies were notable as being far more democratic than any others then in existence. This was true especially of the local governments in the northern and middle colonies. In New England every town was governed by a town meeting composed of all voters in that town, and by officials chosen by popular election in those town meetings. In New York most of the town officials were chosen by the people, although much of the work of governing was done by county officials appointed by the governor. Pennsylvania chose her own county officials. In Virginia and the

[1] Only letters could be sent by government post.

South there were no officials for districts smaller than the county and these officers were selected by the governor, so that the people had little share directly in their local government.

Central government of the colonies.

In every colony there was an assembly chosen by the voters. This assembly, together with a "council," made the laws subject to the approval of the governor. It also controlled almost exclusively the raising of money by taxation. The council was selected by the governor in all but three colonies,[1] and as the governor was himself chosen by the people in only two colonies, there was in theory very little popular colonial government, although in fact the people's influence over the governor was very great.[2] In two colonies the governors were selected by the proprietors, in two they were elected by the people, and for the others were appointed by the king. Courts of justice existed in every colony, but no judge of colonial times was chosen directly by the people, even in the two little democracies of Connecticut and Rhode Island.

Ashley, *Am. Gov't*, §§ 112–115.

Lee (ed.), *N. America*, VI, 57–66.

Suffrage laws.

The suffrage laws of the colonies, although narrow from our point of view, were exceedingly liberal when compared with those of foreign countries. Every landowner with property of a certain value in the North, or of a certain size in the South, was allowed to vote. It is true this excluded about ninety-five per cent of the population, but many who could not vote on colonial affairs were allowed to take part in local government.

Hart, *Contemporaries*, II, No. 61.

English common law in America.

**113. Colonial Law.** — Although the laws varied considerably from colony to colony, there was a uniformity that is remarkable considering the differences between the people and the occupations of the various sections. All of the colonies had transplanted the English system of common law with such modifications as the peculiar conditions in each colony required. Many of the laws made by the colonial legislatures were merely reënactments of English statutes. In fact, the laws were few

[1] See Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts. [2] See § 87.

in comparison with the volume of state legislation at the present time.

Land laws of the colonies.

The system of land laws in use in America illustrates how the English system was modified to meet colonial needs. Land was considered the property of the king, the name real estate, or royal estate, emphasizing this fact. The king made grants of land to companies and individuals, so that in America the legislature of the charter colonies or the proprietor of the proprietary colonies had the right to regrant land, and in the royal colonies the governor, as the direct representative of the king, had the right. Grants were made to individuals with a lavishness that amounted to recklessness, for land was plentiful and cost the grantor little or nothing. Not only were large estates numerous, but the number of small landowners was very great, as most heads of families owned their own farms. Because so many people owned land, and because speculation in land was common even in colonial times, the slow and cumbersome English system of transferring land was altered so that it was easy to sell or buy real estate.

Coman, *Industrial Hist.*, 32–38.

Eggleston, in *Century*, XXVIII (1884), 848–852.

Inheritance laws.

The American inheritance laws were borrowed from England except in the Puritan and Quaker colonies. Elsewhere the estates or farms descended to the eldest son, because primogeniture was recognized in New York and the South. In New England, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and New Jersey a double share went to the eldest son, but the other children, including the daughters, had an equal share in the property of the father when he died without making a will.

**TOPICS**

COLONIAL MANUFACTURES: Coman, "Industrial History of the United States," pp. 62–72; Wright, "Industrial Evolution of the United States," pp. 23–60, 80–103; Beer, "Commercial Policy of England toward the American Colonies," 66–90.

COLONIAL PAPER MONEY: Dewey, "Financial History of the United States," pp. 21–30; White, "Money and Banking," 103–114; Sumner, "History of American Currency," 14–43; Bullock, "Monetary History of the United States," I, Chapter IV.

**STUDIES**

1. Conditions in Germany that led to emigration to America. (Bittinger, "Germans in Colonial Times," pp. 11–24.)

2. German redemptioners. (Bittinger, "Germans in Colonial Times," pp. 215–229.)

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7. Meat and drink in colonial times. (Earle, "Home Life in Colonial Days," pp. 142–165.)

8. Dress of the colonists. (Earle, "Home Life in Colonial Days," pp. 281–299; Eggleston, in *Century*, XXIX (1885), pp. 882–892.)

9. The colonial theater. (Eggleston, in *Century*, XXX (1885), pp. 403–407.)

10. Church and meeting house before the Revolution. (Eggleston in *Century*, XXXIII (1887), pp. 901–912.)

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4. Explain why England and the colonies each took the course

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